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POLITICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL AND MILITARY AFFAIRS

No. 1824



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INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

GDR SEES IMPROVED BLOC RELATIONS WITH THIRD WORLD

Socialism Gaining 'Foothold'

East Berlin BERLINER ZEITUNG in German 12 Sep 80 p 4

[Article by Hartmut Kohlmetz: "Karl Marx--A Guide Even for the Millions in Africa; Socialism Is Beginning To Gain a Foothold on the Fourth Continent"]

[Text] The 1970's marked the transition from the cold war to detente. At the start of the 1980's, the world stands at the crossroads: will it manage to make the principles of peaceful coexistence prevail further, end the more and more dangerous arms race and undertake effective disarmament steps? Or is the world going into another cold war? The answers to that as well as the questions about the causes for the exacerbation of the international situation and about ways for defusing it are the subject of this article series. Today we will deal with the change on the African continent.

The 1970's turned Africa into a focal point of the worldwide class conflict. Since the Portuguese empire collapsed (1974), colonialism has virtually been eradicated. The independence of Zimbabwe in April this year also marked the beginning of the end of minority rule in the south of Africa. And more than that: Laying the corner stone for the Karl Marx monument in Addis Ababa during a visit by a GDR party and state delegation in November last year was conspicuously symbolic of the further progress on the fourth continent. During the laying of the corner stone, Erich Honecker said: "It shows that millions of people in Africa have started to regard Marxism-Leninism as a guide in their righteous struggle for national and social liberation."

A new phase of the liberation struggle has begun in Africa. The greater strength of socialism, the new possibilities for international solidarity arising therefrom, and the relations for mutual advantage initiated meanwhile between the young African states and the socialist countries have made it possible to enter the struggle for the second liberation: economic independence, indispensably prerequisite to any real political independence.

A Lift for the Second Liberation

The peoples' in the former Portuguese colonies decision to move toward a people's democratic course of development in the socialist direction and the overthrow of the feudal-monarchistic regime in Ethiopia (1974) and the social revolution that came with it provided the impulse. That such revolutionary decisions by the peoples can no longer be swept under the rug without trouble by the military export of the counterrevolution on this continent either is an experience imperialism had to make in Angola as in Ethiopia.

To be sure, imperialism refuses to reconcile itself with such losses in positions. It wants no consolidation of the young states' political independence wishing to determine their raw material production and prices themselves. It does not want the emergence and development of states that have opted for socialism. It wants no alliance consolidating between the progressive African states and the countries of real socialism.

"The immense African continent," as U.S. Defense Secretary Brown explained in May 1978, "deserves attention not only because of its strategically important geographic location but also because of its growing value as a raw material source."

And indeed, Africa--along with the petroleum centers of the Near East--is imperialism's most important raw material source. For that reason its strategic goals in the worldwide class conflict lie in "preserving the access of the West to the raw material deposits vital for the prosperity of the rich world," as the bourgeois LE MONDE DIPLOMATIQUE wrote in July 1978. On the whole, Africa's soil harbors circa one-third of the world's mineral resources.

No Blank Check for the Status Quo

The former U.S. Secretary of State Kissinger had wanted to persuade the world public that by accepting the detente policy the United States had received a blank check, as it were, from the Soviet Union for preserving the status quo in the Third World. He evidently believed the Soviet Union's great interest in detente would make possible putting the Soviet Union under pressure and preventing it from engaging in internationalist solidarity with the African nations. That design had to collapse of course like a house of cards because the communists do not throw their class position overboard.

After throwing back the South African aggressors in Angola, stirred up by the United States--in the fall of 1975, the racists were only 25 kilometers from Luanda--, through military support from the Soviet Union and Cuba, the time had come for imperialism to seek a new Africa strategy. Its principles were formulated by the current national security advisor to the U.S. President, Brzezinski.

The battle between socialism and capitalism was being decided in the Third World, he explained in his book, "America in a Hostile World," published in excerpts only in the summer 1976 issue of FOREIGN POLICY. For that reason, the capitalist countries, the "industrially developed democracies," should have to unite in order to "solve the problems with the developing countries" through such a united front. The leadership in this "creative process of constructing a new world community" would of course go to the United States which was called upon "to structure the rapidly changing world in a manner that conforms with our national interests."

The imperialist conspiracy based on this concept, by which unrestrained supremacy in Africa is to be reconstituted, was sealed at the NATO Council Session in Washington in May 1978 and the subsequent summit meeting of the seven leading imperialist powers in Bonn in July 1978. Part of this counter-offensive were and are the confrontations around the Horn of Africa to bring Ethiopia down on its knees. That also includes South Africa's attacks on Angola and the military operations of former Southern Rhodesia against Mozambique and Zambia. In the same directions were and are aimed the attempts at imposing neocolonialist pseudo-solutions on Zimbabwe and now also Namibia. This furthermore includes the nuclear conspiracy with South Africa up to igniting the first nuclear bomb in September last year, the buildup of a Rapid Deployment Force, and the slander campaign in the African states directed against the Soviet Union, Cuba and the GDR.

These imperialist activities have kindled dangerous tension in many places and extracted costly human and material sacrifices from the peoples which they would have needed urgently for their own material and cultural development. In drawing up an interim balance-sheet for the imperialist counter-offensive thus far, the enemies of the African peoples were able temporarily to gain some positions, to be sure, in a few countries that were willing to provide the United States with military bases. But on the whole, the imperialist plot did not work.

On What the Peoples May Continue to Rely in the Future

The most recent session of the Political Advisory Commission of the Warsaw Pact states reiterated its continued resolute support for the African peoples. That gives them the guarantee that they will continue their advances throughout the 1980's in getting rid of the yoke of imperialism, neocolonialism and racism.

West German Commentary

Bonn IWE-TAGESDIENST in German No 119, 7 Aug 80 pp 1-2

[Report from Berlin: "East Wants To Form Closer Ties With Developing Countries--GDR Journal Stresses Growing Significance of Developing Countries in East-West Conflict." A translation of the East Berlin DEUTSCHE AUSSEN-POLITIK article cited below follows this commentary]

[Text] The semiofficial East Berlin journal DEUTSCHE AUSSENPOLITIK (No 8, 1980) has advocated closer ties between the developing countries and the socialist states. New successes in the national and social liberation struggle by the peoples of Asia, Africa and Latin America would depend on how they "cooperate with the USSR and the other socialist states, how effectively they use the aid and support offered by them, and not let themselves be pushed into anticommunist and anti-Sovietist positions." The course of socialist development taken by some of these states made it possible "gradually to overcome the backwardness and dependency inherited from their colonialist past and create the material-technical, social and political-ideological preconditions for having the revolutionary process grow into the socialist revolution." The future of the socialist-oriented developing countries would depend "significantly on how firmly those particular countries are solidarily affiliated with the socialist states."

DEUTSCHE AUSSENPOLITIK in this context stressed the great role played by the circa 120 developing countries in the intensifying East-West conflict. The developing countries, as the largest group of states in numbers, had "a great influence on UN decisions." Some developing countries had immense raw material and energy resources and played a great role, especially, for the economy of the Western states. The increasing weight of the developing countries with respect to the East-West conflict was, last but not least, determined by the military-strategic location of many of these states.

Importance in East-West Conflict

East Berlin DEUTSCHE AUSSENPOLITIK in German Vol 25 No 8, Aug 80 signed to press 3 Jul 80 pp 37-48

[Article by Dr Emil Langer, Academy of Social Sciences, SED Central Committee, East Berlin: "Lenin and the National Liberation Movement"]

[Text] From 19 July to 7 August 1920, 60 years ago, the Second Congress of the Communist International (Comintern) was held in Petrograd and Moscow. The resolutions of that congress were of extraordinary importance for the development and struggle of the growing communist movement.¹

In the preparation of the program documents and resolutions of that congress, Lenin, whose 110th birthday is being celebrated this year by progressive forces all over the world, had a decisive share. Among the studies on which the congress deliberations were based also was the "Original Draft for the Theses on the National and Colonial Question."² This study by itself makes clear that the Second Comintern Congress through Lenin's creative work also made a significant contribution to preparing a scientific orientation for the activities of the communists in the colonial and semicolonial countries. That is attested by the fact that Lenin delivered the report by the commission for the national and colonial question.³

To give a vivid picture on just a few pages of the whole breadth and variety of the problems treated at that congress is impossible. Instead, by selected problems we wish to pay tribute to the share Lenin and the Second Comintern Congress have had in extending the doctrine of the national and colonial question and the strategy and tactics of the international revolutionary workers movement vis-a-vis the national liberation movement.

In contrast to the parties of the Second International (1889 to 1914) that were dominated by the opportunists, the Comintern adopted a rigorously revolutionary position based on proletarian internationalism with respect to the national and colonial question. That stance had for its premise the teachings of the founders of scientific communism. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels had paid much attention to the peoples' liberation struggle in the colonial and semicolonial countries. They had revealed the essence of the national and colonial question and proven the inevitably established community of interests and struggle between the workers class in the so-called motherlands and the subjugated peoples in the colonies. Marx and Engels illuminated that the struggle by those peoples for national liberation and social progress was inseparably connected with the struggle of the international proletariat, with the successes and victories of the revolutionary workers movement. They created the theoretical principles for the interrelations and cooperation between the international workers movement and the national liberation movement.

These important insights by Marx and Engels also governed the practical political work of the First International in opposition to colonialism and on behalf of the peoples' freedom. They were further developed by Lenin, creatively and through heavy confrontation with revisionist conceptions, under the conditions of imperialism and the general crisis in capitalism, into a doctrine on the national and colonial question and the strategy and tactics for the international workers movement vis-a-vis the national liberation movement.

Lenin and the Role of the National Liberation Movement in the Revolutionary World Process

While the reformist parties of the Second International were of the opinion that the suppressed peoples were "not yet ripe" for their independence and regarded the movement in the colonial countries as an "insignificant national and utterly peaceful movement," Lenin marked its new quality as follows: "Millions and hundreds of millions--in fact, the overwhelming majority of the population on our globe--are asserting themselves now as independent, active, revolutionary factors."⁴ Based on the theoretical insights by Marx and Engels into the dialectical connection between the revolutionary proletarian movement and the national liberation movement, Lenin wrote in 1916: "The social revolution can proceed in no other way but in the form of an era in which the proletariat's civil war against the bourgeoisie in the progressive countries combines with a whole number of democratic and revolutionary movements, including the national liberation movements of the undeveloped, backward and suppressed nations."⁵

The first victorious socialist revolution in the world itself also met tasks of an anticolonial revolution, of a national liberation revolution. It, at the same time, amounted to a turning point in the liberation struggle of the colonially suppressed peoples altogether.

With the victory of the Great Socialist October Revolution, the national liberation movement entered a new phase and got a mighty boost. In the first socialist state it got its most loyal ally. The Soviet Union, as Lenin announced, acted not only as the "representative of the proletarians of all countries," but also as the "representative of the suppressed peoples."⁶ The first firm foundations were laid for the anti-imperialist alliance between socialism, the international workers movement and the national liberation movement. Lenin stressed "that the revolutionary movement of the peoples of the East can develop successfully and reach its goal only through its direct connections with the revolutionary struggle of our Soviet Republic against international imperialism."⁷

After the victory of the Great Socialist October Revolution, Lenin prepared a prognosis for the future role of the national liberation movement within the revolutionary world process. The awakening of the peoples of the East, that was caused by the October Revolution, would be followed, he predicted, by an epoch in which all these peoples "take part in deciding the destiny of the whole world and stop being merely an object for enrichment."⁸

Lenin defined the liberation movement of the suppressed peoples as "national-revolutionary,"⁹ as an "active factor in the struggle for the overthrow of world imperialism."¹⁰ The specific share this movement would have in the revolutionary world process he primarily saw in that it would have the task to eliminate imperialist colonial rule in vast areas of the world and pave the way for solving general democratic tasks and for surmounting the backwardness for which colonialism was to be blamed. At the Second Comintern Congress in 1921, he drew the conclusion that "in the decisive battles of the world revolution to come, the movement of the majority of the world population, which originally aimed at their national liberation, will turn against capitalism and imperialism and perhaps play a much greater revolutionary role than we had expected, and where the masses of the working people and the peasants in the colonial countries, though they are still backwards now, will play a very great revolutionary role in subsequent phases of the world revolution."¹¹

Enriched in recent decades by the scientific achievements of the communist world movement, mainly that of the CPSU, in settling newly ripened theoretical and practical problems in the national and social liberation struggle under the conditions of the successful advances of the socialist world system and the further deepening of the general crisis in capitalism, the Marxist-Leninist doctrine on the national and colonial question has emphatically attested to its strength all over the world in revolutionizing and actively changing the popular masses.

That the national liberation movement developed into a significant factor of the anti-imperialist struggle is inseparably connected with the world-transforming victories of socialism. The international conference of the communist and workers parties in 1969 defined that movement as one of the three main revolutionary currents of our time, and as an alliance partner of the socialist states and the international workers movement in the struggle against imperialism and reaction and for social progress.¹²

The course of events in Asia, Africa and Latin America fully confirmed Lenin's analysis and prognosis and those of the communist world movement, especially also those of the 25th CPSU Congress and of the Ninth SED Congress, with respect to the role of the national liberation movement in the worldwide revolutionary process. The overwhelming majority of the once colonially suppressed peoples on those continents won their national independence. Today circa 120 states, in which more than 70 percent of the world's population lives, make up the group of the developing countries and constitute four-fifths of the UN member states. They have become active participants and coshapers of world politics and international relations. Their weight in the conflict between socialism and imperialism and in the struggle for peace and social progress keeps increasing.

The peoples' national liberation struggle contributed to a change in the situation in the United Nations and other international organizations, a change that reflects the development of the international balance of power. As the numerically strongest group of states, the developing countries exercise a great influence on UN decisions. Most of these countries take part in the movement of the nonaligned states, which plays an increasing role in international life, actively struggling against imperialism and aggression, neocolonialism and racism.¹³ These states also are more strongly affecting the activities of other international organizations. More than ever the USSR and the other socialist states, together with most of the liberated countries, have been able to bring about important resolutions in such organizations that serve the defense of world peace, the safeguarding of international security, the elimination of dangerous sources of conflict, the expansion of international detente to other areas in the world, the total elimination of all sources of colonialism and racism, and the democratic transformation of international economic relations. At the same time it is apparent that the increasing diversification among the developing countries and the growing socioeconomic and political differences among them affect the consistency of their anti-imperialist struggle and the cohesion in their stand against neocolonialism and hegemonism. Thus it should not be excluded that nonaligned states, as Erich Honecker put it, "in one case or another assume diverse positions in the United Nations because of differences in their socioeconomic levels and their political orientation."¹⁴ This applies as much to their activities on other levels of international politics.

Some of the developing countries have enormous raw material and energy resources. Among other things, for instance, from 80 to 90 percent of the

petroleum and phosphate deposits outside the socialist world, and from 50 to 60 percent of the copper, iron and manganese ore deposits, are concentrated in such countries. Africa, for instance, holds 97 percent of the world supplies surveyed in chromium, 85 percent of the platinum, 65 percent of the gold, 50 percent of the manganese and 25 percent of the uranium. African countries are among the most important producers of petroleum, iron, diamonds, bauxite, phosphates, copper and alloy steels. These few figures and facts suffice to explain how much of a role the developing countries currently play, especially for the economy of the imperialist states, and how great their potential is for the future shaping of international economic relations and the solution of global problems of humanity.

It conforms with the aggressive character of imperialism that it opposes in every way the struggle by the peoples in the developing countries for their economic independence, for the power of disposition over their national resources, to keep or regain those raw material and fuel sources.

The South African racist regime and the NATO states stubbornly deprive the Namibian people of their freedom and independence, not last because it has uranium deposits counting among the largest in the world. The FRG imports 30 percent of its uranium from Namibia although UN resolutions prohibit the import of raw materials from that country.

In the 1970's imperialism sought to appropriate the resources of the developing countries mainly by an increased capital export offensive. "The aggressive circles of imperialism seek raw material sources," Erich Honecker said, "political and military-strategic positions, spheres of influence, and maximum profits."¹⁵ The contradictions between the imperialist states and the developing countries are going to continue throughout the 1980's.¹⁶

The attitude of the nationally liberated states is gaining increasing importance for the solution of global problems of humanity, especially in the struggle for peace and disarmament. It must be kept in mind that most sources of conflict and war in the world, which were generated or are being maintained by the aggressive policy of imperialism and the Chinese leaders' hegemonistic drive for expansion, relate to the nationally liberated countries or the still colonially or racially suppressed peoples. Advances in arms limitation and disarmament and the removal of imperialist military bases from territories of once colonial countries would solidify the sovereignty and integrity of the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America and spare them their great military expenditures.

The frantic U.S. and NATO armaments policy implies an ever more copious and profitable export of arms to the developing countries. The armaments expenditures of some of those countries have risen by leaps and bounds in recent years. According to Soviet publications, the proportion in general world armaments expenditures on the part of the developing countries rose from 5.8 to 12.6 percent between 1965 and 1975. In 1976, their armaments expenditures came to \$ 90.7 billion. Some states, especially Brazil and

Argentina, have themselves become arms producers and suppliers. Brazil alone already sells arms to 33 states. Its armaments export in 1979 came up to a value of approximately \$ 500 million. In 1980, prospects are it will go to \$ 1 billion.¹⁷

Containing the arms race and disarmament measures would release considerable funds for peaceful purposes, which also would support the developing countries in their solving their economic, social and educational and cultural policy problems. This would create more favorable conditions for coming to grips with the global problems mankind is confronting. That applies to the struggle against hunger and disease, environmental protection and other matters that have to do with the population explosion and modern civilization that are becoming more and more urgent. According to UN surveys, for example, more than 30 million children below the age of 5 starved in 1978, and circa 800 million are vegetating below the subsistence minimum.

The most recent estimates of the UN Center for Demography suggest the inference that the population in the developing countries will continue to increase rapidly and that 80 percent of the entire population of the world will be living there by the end of our century.¹⁸ This enormous growth causes many complicated economic, social, medical and other problems and tasks which can be resolved only by an efficient use of national resources and by international cooperation.

The labor potential in these countries will have approximately doubled by the year 2000, with circa 1.5 billion working persons. The historically most important trend in this is the constant growth of the workers class that will find its social role enhanced.

Last but not least, it also is the military-strategic location of many of these countries that increases the weight of the former colonial world in international relations, in the conflict between socialism and imperialism, and in the struggle for peace and social progress.

Lenin's 1919 remark, that the revolutionary movement of the peoples of the East could successfully develop and reach its goal in immediate connection only with the Soviet Union's revolutionary struggle against international imperialism, remains wholly pertinent. The assured prospects of the national and social liberation struggle by the peoples of Asia, Africa and Latin America also have a close connection with the growing strength of real socialism and of its international influence. New successes in this struggle will depend on how well the anti-imperialist, revolutionary forces in the countries on these continents strengthen further their own commitment in the international arena and work together with the USSR and the other socialist states, make efficient use of the aid and support they have offered them and not let themselves be pushed into anticommunist and anti-Sovietist positions. The close alliance among world socialism, the revolutionary workers movement in the capitalist countries and the peoples' anti-imperialist liberation movement, based on reciprocal objective identity of interests, is a crucial prerequisite and guarantee for victory in the cause of national and social liberation and imposes solidary obligations on all alliance partners.

The policy of peace, detente and peaceful coexistence, pursued by the USSR and the other states in the socialist community, in conformity with the essence of socialism, expresses the fundamental vital interests of all peoples. As historic experience has proven in recent decades, it also is a decisive precondition for the successful development and victory of the anti-imperialist movement in Asia, Africa and Latin America. Only by all developing countries' active commitment to the safeguarding of peace and the prevention of imperialist interventions and aggressive acts by hegemonial forces, the peoples of the former colonial and semicolonial countries will find it possible to solve their vital problems. Erich Honecker said about this: "In peace, the interests of the peoples, and their struggle for national independence and social progress, prosper. The class policy of monopoly capital raises danger to peace and the nations' security. Therefore the struggle for peace is the central issue for mankind and for the class struggle in the international arena."¹⁹

Lenin on the Social Prospects of the Former Colonial and Backward Countries

The founders of scientific communism arrived at the ingenious prediction that it would be possible for colonially suppressed and dependent nations to shorten their developmental process toward socialist society and spare themselves the agonies of the capitalist system. Lenin defended these theoretical insights against all attacks by rightist opportunist and ultra-leftist forces and creatively extended them further under the new historic conditions in our century. At the Second Cominform Congress he reaffirmed the possibility "that the backward countries with the support from the proletariat in the most progressive countries" could arrive at socialism "without having had to pass through the stage of capitalist development."²⁰

The theory of noncapitalist development demonstrated its vitality first within the framework of the USSR and then in the Mongolian People's Republic. It has been and is being enriched by the experiences of the peoples of Vietnam, the Korean Democratic People's Republic and other states that have turned toward socialist development. Social development oriented toward socialism, as it is becoming reality today in an increasing number of nationally liberated states, doubtless is the most important sociopolitical phenomenon in Asia and Africa after the disintegration of the imperialist colonial system. It is a significant criterion in the further spread of the revolutionary world process and in the deepening of the general crisis of capitalism. Practical public affairs in the countries that have opted for the socialist orientation confirm that this course amounts to a revolutionary transition process entailing anti-imperialist, antifeudal, democratic and increasingly also anticapitalist transformations. This course of development makes possible gradually to overcome the backwardness and dependency inherited from the colonial past and to create the material-technical, social and political-ideological preconditions for having the revolutionary process grow into the socialist revolution. Decisive for this is the altered international correlation of forces, the firm political alliance between the progressive forces of any of those countries with the

USSR and the other socialist states, and the formation of a revolutionary vanguard of the working people, equipped with the scientific world-outlook, that is able to give political leadership to the state and society.

The peoples in the countries with a socialist orientation are visibly successful in their efforts at securing and solidifying their state sovereignty, constructing their national economy and gaining economic independence, making public and political life more democratic, developing an educational and health system, encouraging national culture and raising the standard of living. They are securing for themselves the power of disposition over their national resources and are developing a strong governmental economic sector as the economic basis for their revolutionary-democratic power. The USSR and other socialist states, the GDR included, are providing them in this with extensive political, economic, scientific-technical and other aid.

The 14th CEMA session, from 17 to 19 June 1980, reiterated once again:

"Led by the principles of internationalism, the CEMA member countries, on a bilateral and multilateral basis, support the young states that have taken the course of socialist development as well as other developing countries in their rapid economic development and in consolidating the political and economic independence of these countries."²¹

Aleksy Kosygin, chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers, at that session made a special point of how important it was to develop cooperation with Angola, Afghanistan, Democratic Yemen, Kampuchea, Laos, Mozambique and Ethiopia.²²

The countries with a socialist orientation are pursuing an anti-imperialist peace and detente policy and are standing in the front rank of the national and social liberation struggle by the African and Asian peoples. Due to uneven starting and developmental conditions, there are great differences among them with respect to the course of the revolutionary process and the changes in their base and superstructure achieved thus far and desired in the future. Social development in these countries proceeds under complicated domestic and external conditions and contains many social and political contradictions. It is accompanied by bitter conflicts and also, at times, by stagnation and reversals. As Erich Honecker emphasized, advances "mainly depend on the development of the classes, their power ratio, the degree of organization in the revolutionary forces, and the formation of vanguard parties."²³

Imperialism and domestic reaction seek as best they can to stop the revolutionary process and reverse the social transformations initiated. In this they are exploiting the fact that the countries of socialist orientation still depend to a large extent on the capitalist world market right now and for the foreseeable future.

The nearly 20-year historic experiences by nationally liberated states moving toward socialism teach us, however, that this form of progressive social development is a real and unspurious course of struggle by the peoples for a new life, even if some countries have broken it off or stagnations or retrogressive trends have occurred.

A perspective in social development oriented toward socialism will be secure to the extent that, mainly, stable relations evolve in the revolutionary exercise of power by the working people, based on the political alliance among the workers, peasants and other working people under the leadership by the workers class and its Marxist-Leninist vanguard. It essentially depends on how firmly the countries concerned are tied in solidarity to the socialist states.

Lenin on the Specifics in the Communists' Struggle in the Colonies and Semicolonies

Lenin marked as the "corner stone of all Comintern policy in the national and colonial question the mutual rapprochement between the proletarians and the working masses in all nations and countries in a common revolutionary struggle for the overthrow of the landowners and the bourgeoisie."²⁴ Accordingly, the guidelines he had prepared, which were adopted by the Second Comintern Congress, set as conditions for membership in the Comintern: "Any party that wishes to belong to the Third International is obligated implacably to unmask the machinations of 'its' imperialists in the colonies, support every liberation movement in the colonies, not by words but by deeds, demand the expulsion of its own imperialists from these colonies, awaken truly fraternal sentiments for the working population in the colonies in the hearts of the workers of its own country, and for the suppressed nations, and engage, in its country's army, in systematic agitation against any suppression of the colonial peoples."²⁵

To the extent that the communist parties in their practical politics let themselves be guided by these principles and the colonially suppressed peoples overcame their own reservations toward the working people in the imperialist states, the alliance developed between the revolutionary workers movement and the national liberation movement in its anticolonial, anti-imperialist struggle. The slogan, "Proletarians of All Countries and Suppressed Peoples All Over the World, Unite!" which was first formulated at the First Congress of the Peoples of the East in 1920, more and more turned into a joint action program.

In the outcome of this evolution and of the struggle by the revolutionary forces there also formed communist parties and groups in colonial and dependent countries. Among the historic distinctions of the Comintern is that it did extensive work in supporting the formation of such parties and solidifying them ideologically and organizationally. It is of course largely the specific sociopolitical and national-ethnic conditions in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America that mark the appearance and effectiveness potential of these parties. Lenin repeatedly pointed out that one could not possibly speak of any "purely proletarian movement"²⁶ in colonies the most important feature of which was that precapitalist conditions were still prevailing there.

"It would be utopian to believe," he explained, "that proletarian parties, if they could evolve in such countries in the first place, would be in the position to carry out communist tactics and communist policy in such backward countries without establishing certain relations with the peasants movement and energetically supporting it."²⁷

Reviewing the practical results of the work by Russian communists in former tsarist colonies, in Turkestan for example, he however also made the point "that in spite of these difficulties it is possible to awaken in the masses the desire for independent political thinking and independent political activity even where there is almost no proletariat."²⁸ While already the First Comintern Congress had been attended by revolutionaries from China, Korea, Persia, Turkey and Latin America, the Second Congress for the first time also saw delegates from other colonial and dependent countries among its attendants, from India, for example. They represented Marxist circles and groups and leftist forces in socialist organizations and national-revolutionary liberation movements that had taken a mighty boost after the Great Socialist October Revolution. About the magnitude of the task the communists had in the colonies and semicolonies to work out a correct revolutionary strategy and tactics commensurate with the realities of colonial dependence and backwardness, Lenin said: "Here a task arises for them unlike any other ever for communists all over the world: Based on general communist theory and practice, they must, while adapting to specific conditions such as do not exist in European countries, know how to apply this theory and practice to conditions where the population is made up almost completely by peasants and where the struggle has to be directed not against capital but against the residues of the Middle-Ages."²⁹

Of special value was the remark that the revolutionary party of the proletariat must be able "to combine with the broadest masses of the working people, principally with the proletariat but also with the nonproletarian working masses, get closer to them and, if you wish, meld with them to a certain degree."³⁰ It was necessary for the party "to use any, even the tiniest possibility to gain an ally among the masses, even if he be only a temporary, fluctuating, unsafe, unreliable or conditional ally."³¹

The national liberation struggle has emphatically provided practical confirmation of the correctness of these remarks by Lenin and of the Second Comintern Congress resolutions. The communist parties that evolved in Asia and Africa have followed a complicated course, rich in sacrifice. Since being set up, all their efforts have been directed at liberating their peoples from the colonial yoke and representing the working masses' vital public interests. The communist movement has also grown on these continents and has become politically stronger in recent years. Its guiding and mobilizing role in carrying further the national and social liberation struggle has grown. Most communist parties have in the 1970's rendered more precise and further developed their political, strategic and tactical positions and adopted new party programs or program documents.

It is of extraordinary importance that in several African and Asian states, like in Angola, Mozambique, Congo, Benin, Ethiopia and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, the revolutionary-democratic parties or movements have pronounced scientific socialism the basis of their policy and have begun to organize themselves as revolutionary vanguard parties. This attests to the fact that even in countries with weakly developed class distinctions, where thus far no communist parties had formed, the movement for national and social liberation increasingly begins to combine with scientific socialism.

The SED and the GDR have always stood by the side of the peoples struggling for their national and social liberation and have lent them the greatest possible assistance. They do attach special importance to the socialist-oriented states, to the formation of revolutionary vanguard parties in Africa and Asia because they, after all, as Erich Honecker put it at the 11th SED Central Committee session, embody social progress and another great victory of scientific socialism.³²

At present, alliance relations of new dimensions and new qualities are developing with these states and parties. An important contribution to that have been the friendship visits of party and state delegations in 1979, headed by SED Central Committee General Secretary and GDR State Council Chairman Erich Honecker to several African and Arab countries. The long-term friendship and cooperation treaties signed on those occasions with Angola, Mozambique, Ethiopia and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen open up great prospects for these relations on behalf of our common struggle against imperialism and its neocolonialist policy, and for peace and social progress.

FOOTNOTES

1. Cf. H. Schumacher, "Die Kommunistische Internationale (1919-1943). Grundzuege ihres Kampfes fuer Frieden, Demokratie, nationale Befreiung und Sozialismus" (The Communist International, 1919-1943--The Basic Features of Its Struggle for Peace, Democracy, National Liberation and Socialism), Berlin, 1979.
2. V. I. Lenin, "Werke" (Works), Vol 31, pp 132-139.
3. Cf. *ibid.*, p 228.
4. *Ibid.*, Vol 32, p 505.
5. *Ibid.*, Vol 23, p 53.
6. *Ibid.*, Vol 31, p 448.
7. *Ibid.*, Vol 30, p 136.
8. *Ibid.*, p 145.

9. Ibid., Vol 31, p 229.
10. Ibid., Vol 30, p 145.
11. Ibid., Vol 32, p 505.
12. Cf. "International Conference of the Communist and Workers Parties, Moscow 1969," Berlin, 1969, p 12.
13. Cf. E. Honecker, "Die naechsten Aufgaben der Partei bei der weiteren Durchfuehrung der Beschluesse des IX. Parteitages der SED" (The Next Party Tasks in the Further Implementation of the Ninth SED Congress Resolutions), Berlin, 1980, p 20.
14. Ibid.
15. Ibid., p 13.
16. Cf. ibid., p 24.
17. Cf. V. V. Gorokhev and P. P. Yakovlev, "Armament Expenditures in Latin America," LATINSKAYA AMERIKA, Moscow, No. 3.
18. Cf. "World Population Trend," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, Berlin, 19 June 1980.
19. E. Honecker, "Die naechsten Aufgaben," op. cit., pp 13-14.
20. V. I. Lenin, "Werke," Vol 31, p 232.
21. "Communique of the 34th CEMA Session," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, Berlin, 20 June 1980.
22. Cf. NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, Berlin, 19 June 1980.
23. E. Honecker, "Die naechsten Aufgaben," op. cit., p 19.
24. V. I. Lenin, "Werke," Vol 31, p 134.
25. Ibid., p 196.
26. Ibid., p 231.
27. Ibid., p 230.
28. Ibid., p 231.
29. Ibid., Vol 30, p 146.
30. Ibid., Vol 31, p 9.
31. Ibid., 0 56.
32. Cf. "11. Tagung des ZK der SED," Berlin, 1979, p 21.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF RUBEN AVRAMOV LEVI

Sofia RABOTNICHESKO DELO in Bulgarian 23 Sep 80 p 4

[Article by Deyan Pavlov, senior scientific associate: "Notable Scientist and Distinguished Statesman"]

[Text] Comrade Ruben Avramov, a veteran statesman as well as a notable figure in cultural and scientific fields, recently turned 80 years of age. Our nation celebrated his anniversary with due respect and gratitude for his work as professor, member of the Central Committee of the BCP, hero of socialist labor, public figure in art and culture and director of the Institute on Contemporary Socialist Theory.

Comrade R. Avramov was born on 23 September 1900 in Samokov into a large family of workers. During World War I he became a sympathizer of the leftwing socialist party. In 1919 the students circle in which R. Avramov participated merged with the then created youth communist league in Samokov. Through his initiative a league of this kind was founded in Dolna Banya too. In the fall of the following year young Ruben arrived in Sofia and started active work in the Komsomol of the capital and in 1922 became its secretary. R. Avramov, a courageous and unwavering fighter, participated in the preparation of the September 1923 uprising in Sofia by organizing combat units. In October of the same year Avramov was made a member of the Central Committee of the BKMS [Bulgarian Communist Youth Union].

At the beginning of 1925 R. Avramov's life entered a new phase. Following the decision of the BKMS Central Committee he was sent as a delegate to the enlarged plenum of the Executive Committee of the Communist Youth International. After the April 1925 bombing of St Sofia Cathedral in Sofia and the beastly terror, the Office in Exile of the BCP Central Committee decided that R. Avramov should stay in the USSR as a political emigre. The fascist regime in Bulgaria sentenced him to death in absentia.

He graduated from the Lenin International School, founded by the Executive Committee of the Comintern with the purpose of training cadres from other fraternal parties. Later on he was appointed lecturer at the Bulgarian sector of the Communist University for training of cadres for the communist parties in some capitalist countries. In 1931 he became a lecturer at the Lenin International School. With great energy and devotion to the party Avramov participated in the work of the Bulgarian emigres in the USSR.

In 1936 R. Avramov began to work actively in the struggle of the workers in Spain to save the republic from the raging fury of fascism. After the election victory of the Popular Front in Spain, the Spanish students at the Lenin International School auditing the courses of the sector chaired by R. Avramov went back to their country. The ardent proletarian internationalist Avramov, following the decision of the Comintern, Central Committee, joined them in Spain as emissary of the Comintern.



Caption of Photo: Hero of the People's Republic of Bulgaria.

The State Council has issued a decree awarding Ruben Avramov Levi with the title "Hero of the People's Republic of Bulgaria" for his active participation in the fight against fascism and capitalism, for his contribution to the building of socialism and in honor of his 80th birthday.

During the Spanish war he was appointed in early October of 1936 by the military commissariat of the Spanish Republican Army as an inspector general of the military commissars of the Central Front. At the end of 1936, due to his courage, decisiveness and excellent promotional qualities as mass organizer and ideological activist, Avramov was recommended by the government of the Spanish Republic and the Communist Party Central Committee to organize the work of the military commissars in the entire republican zone. He was also appointed chief editor of EL KOMISARIO, the organ of the military commissariat of the Spanish Republican Party.

Day after day, week after week and month after month, Ruben Avramov, the communist internationalist, worked diligently under most trying circumstances and fulfilled all tasks entrusted to him with his habitual revolutionary assertiveness and organizational talent.

In March 1939, after many complex and unforeseen difficulties, R. Avramov left Spain, which was soaked in blood by the war, and, aided by the French Communist Party, reached Paris together with some Spanish comrades. The second half of May of the same year he was back in the USSR, his second fatherland.

In Moscow the Comintern Executive Committee appointed him director of the newly created 2-year party school for training party cadres among Spanish military emigres. In 1942 he became director of the unified school of the Communist International. In this capacity he contributed greatly to the emergence of ardent revolutionaries in the ranks of the fraternal communist parties who later on played an important role in the

fight of their own people against capitalism and fascism, on the side of freedom and socialism. At a later date R. Avramov was made one of the editors of the famous radio station Khristo Botev (1943-1944).

Happy days followed after the 9 September 1944 victory, to which R. Avramov had devoted his strength and entire life without reservations from his early years. At the end of September 1944 he arrived in his country, where new and serious responsibilities awaited him as a party, social, and national figure, as well as teacher, publicist and propagandist. First he worked as acting deputy of the Agitation and Propaganda Department of the BCP Central Committee and has continually been elected at all congresses.

Comrade Avramov has always held responsible positions in the cultural, scientific and ideological fronts during the entire period of the building of socialism. Wherever the party sent him he worked selflessly and successfully for the fulfillment of the tasks in the ideological, scientific and cultural fronts, and also contributed to the victory of the Marxist-Leninist ideology in Bulgaria under the leadership of the party. He participated abroad in many international conferences of the fraternal communist parties.

R. Avramov is a relentless fighter for the promotion of the Leninist April line of the party led by Comrade Todor Zhivkov. This line has opened wide horizons in the transition to socialism and the building of a mature socialist society in our country.

Comrade Avramov's entire life represents a courageous fight based on the principles of unmasking bourgeois ideology, anticommunism, anti-Sovietism, the rightist and "leftist" revisionism, reformism and anarchism. Therefore, it was most natural for Comrade Avramov to head for the past 10 years the Institute on Contemporary Socialist Theories, a specialized scientific enterprise for the fight against hostile ideology and propaganda.

Being a consistent Marxist-Leninist, R. Avramov has always tried to combine his practical with his theoretical and propaganda work, and to contribute to the defense, application and further development of our immortal revolutionary ideology.

The soldier of revolution, the ardent communist, Ruben Avramov Levi, is celebrating his 80th anniversary in the combat line of the party, fulfilling today as well his sacred duty of a patriot and internationalist.

1010
CSO: 2200

BULGARIA

BRIEFS

ALEKSANDUR LILOV IN VRATSA--On 7 October Aleksandur Lilov opened an historic exhibition in Vratsa City, dealing with the anniversary of forming the Bulgarian state. Later on Aleksandur Lilov met the BCP Vratsa Okrug Bureau and was briefed on the tasks performed by the BCP Vratsa Okrug Organization at present. [AU082032 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1830 GMT 7 Oct 80 AU]

BOZHINOV AT OKRUG PLENUM--On 7 October Todor Bozhinov, BCP Central Committee Politburo member and first deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers, and Kiril Zarev, deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers and chairman of the State Planning Committee, took part in a plenum of the BCP Smolen Okrug Organization, at which improving the labor organization and applying the new economic approach were discussed. [AU082032 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1430 GMT 7 Oct 80 AU]

CSSR MINISTER--Grigor Stoichkov, deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers, yesterday received Ladislav Gerle, CSSR minister of metallurgy and heavy industry, who is visiting our country. They discussed questions pertaining to the further development of cooperation in the production and delivery of hydropower equipment, as well as in the field of metallurgy industry and heavy machine building industry. The meeting, which proceeded in a friendly and cordial atmosphere, was attended by Nikola Todoriev, Bulgarian minister of power supply, as well as Jaroslav Hejna, CSSR ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary. [Text] [AU031824 Sofia ROBOTNICHESKO DELO in Bulgarian 30 Sep 80 p 3 AU]

BOZHINOV VISITS PLOVDIV FAIR--On 3 October Todor Bozhinov, BCP Central Committee Politburo member and first deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers, visited the Plovdiv International Fair. He visited the Bulgarian display and was briefed on the technological novelties displayed at the fair. [AU031824 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1000 GMT 3 Oct 80 AU]

TODOROV, SOVIET ACADEMICIAN--Today Comrade Stanko Todorov received academician Vladimir Kotelnikov, vice president of the USSR Academy of Sciences. [Text] [AU022105 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1830 GMT 2 Oct 80 AU]

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY COMMITTEE--The permanent committee on social policy opened a session at the National Assembly. The session is chaired by Peko Takov, chairman of the committee. Members of the council on the reproduction of human resources attached to the State Council are also taking part in the session.

The National Assembly deputies will discuss issues of the workers health protection. They will be submitted reports by Radoy Popivanov, minister of national health, and by Misho Mishev, chairman of the Bulgarian Trade Unions Central Council. The National Assembly deputies will also study documents on investigations carried out in connection with the health protection of workers in the capital and in seven okrugs of the country. [AU022105 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1900 GMT 29 Sep 80 AU]

SCIENTIFIC, TECHNOLOGICAL FORECASTING SYMPOSIUM--Sofia, 1 Oct (BTA)--The 2nd International Symposium on the Problems of Scientific and Technological Forecasting opened here today with a speech of Mr Nacho Papazov, chairman of the State Committee for Science and Technological Progress. At two plenary sittings and the sessions of five sections, specialists from Bulgaria, the GDR, Cuba, Poland, Romania, the Soviet Union, Hungary and Czechoslovakia will exchange experience in application of scientific and technological forecasting in the national economy and the different industries and will discuss the deepening international cooperation in this sphere. [AU022105 Sofia BTA in English 1448 GMT 1 Oct 80]

STOYAN MIKHAYLOV ACTIVITIES--Stoyan Mikhaylov, BCP Central Committee secretary, has received the working group of the CPCZ Central Committee Education and Science Department, led by Chief Jan Majcharcik. During the cordial and friendly talks, issues concerning implementation of the BCP decisions on developing education in our country and on further expanding cooperation between the two communist parties in the sphere of science and education were discussed. [Text] [AU032128 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 2030 GMT 3 Oct 80 AU]

BOZHINOV IN PLOVDIV--On 9 October Todor Bozhinov visited Plovdiv. He visited several industrial plants and took part in a meeting of the BCP Plovdiv Okrug Bureau and Plovdiv Okrug People's Council Executive Committee, in which he was briefed on the tasks solved at present by the okrug party organization. [AU100946 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1630 GMT 9 Oct 80 AU]

LILOV VISIT TO VRATSA--On 9 October Aleksandur Lilov, BCP Central Committee Politburo member and Central Committee secretary, visited Vratsa Okrug. Accompanied by Nano Lalov, BCP Varna Okrug Committee first secretary, Aleksandur Lilov visited research institutes, agrarian plants and the Kozloduy nuclear plant. [AU100946 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1830 GMT 9 Oct 80 AU]

STANISHEV AT AKTIV MEETING--On 7 October Dimitur Stanishev, BCP Central Committee secretary attended a meeting of Sofia Okrug state, party and economic and public aktiv, which marked the beginning of the party education academic year. Vukokay Dyulgerov, BCP Sofia Okrug Committee first secretary, spoke on the tasks of BCP Sofia Okrug Organization. [AU072140 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 1630 GMT 7 Oct 80 AU]

GDR DEPUTY MINISTER--Sofia, 7 Oct (BTA)--Today member of the politburo of the CC of the BCP and first deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers Todor Bozhinov received deputy minister of heavy mechanical engineering and appliance building of the GDR (Eckhard Nezmam). Talks were held on the techno-scientific cooperation in the field of heavy mechanical engineering and the production of

complete projects. Some basic matters of specialization and joint production of mining, metallurgical and power generation equipment up to 1985 were reviewed. [Text] [AU072140 Sofia BTA in English 1835 GMT 7 Oct 80 AU]

LATVIAN VISITOR--Georgi Yordanov, deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers, received a delegation headed by Viktor Krumin, deputy chairman of the Council of Ministers and minister of foreign affairs of the Latvian SSR, yesterday. The meeting, which proceeded in a warm and comradely atmosphere, was attended by (Valentin Dyakov), trade attache of the USSR in Bulgaria. [Text] [AU062020 Sofia RABOTNICHESKO DELO in Bulgarian 3 Oct 80 p 4 AU]

USSR CINEMATOGRAPHY OFFICIAL--On 4 October in Varna Lyudmila Zhivkova received Filipp Yermash, chairman of the USSR State Committee for Cinematography. In a friendly atmosphere they held a discussion on the problems and tendencies of modern cinematography. [AU052200 Sofia Domestic Service in Bulgarian 2030 GMT 4 Oct 80 AU]

CSO: 2200

POLITICAL RELIABILITY KEY FACTOR IN MILITIA CADRE SELECTION

East Berlin DER KAEMPFER in German Vol 24 No 9, Sep 80 p 5

[Article by Lt Col Mattuschak, People's Police, military scientist: "Training Course Capacities Always To Be Fully Utilized According to Type--Observance of Quality Characteristics in Selecting Cadres a Prerequisite for Successful School Attendance"]

[Text] Cadres naturally play an important role in the successful realization of the class mission of the militia cadres which, as a component of socialist national defense, always guarantees continuous high combat strength and combat readiness. Therefore, the work of cadres is an extremely important part of the organizational activities of party and state officials, of police officers responsible and of course also of commanders.

In the total course of development of the militia, the party continues to devote great attention to the cadre problem. Lenin teaches that the cadre is the combat strength of the party and of the state when building up socialism, when strengthening the nation's defense strength, and when solving all socioeconomic problems. Lenin's theoretical legacy contains a universal foundation for the principles of selection, assignment, training and education of the cadre. Lenin placed the political aspect first in solving the cadre problem. He regarded a successful solution of the tasks without approaching the selection of cadres politically as unthinkable. The cadres, their knowledge and experiences, unshakable party loyalty and devotion to socialism decide the success of the matter and finally decide the victory in battle. It is therefore by no means a coincidence that our Marxist-Leninist party places political reliability first when it comes to the selection, acceptance and training of militia members. This principle applies even more for the selection, advanced training and deployment of leadership cadres.

In order to successfully lead men and units in combat, political reliability alone does not suffice. For that it is necessary to have also basic military and theoretical knowledge. The majority of the cadres cannot attain this through self-study. This absolutely necessary knowledge is conveyed in concentrated form and by specialists at the appropriate schools, also to militia members.

The criteria for the selection and assignment of militia cadres to the respective schools are unequivocally established in the appropriate documents. Our

experiences with the Ernst Thaelmann Academy are evidence that a good job of selection continues to be done in districts and counties.. The realization that an even distribution in accordance with training capacities guarantees the highest degree of success during the respective training courses has gained acceptance.

A further increase in the quality and effectiveness in preparation and execution of the political and combat training as well as the additional extracurricular training has always been achieved through the goal-directed use of the cadres in the appropriate functions after completion of their course of instruction. Therefore, it is necessary when selecting and assigning cadres that the comrades assigned to a basic course for commanders and deputies for training as well as for deputies for political work at the Central School, for example, have already completed a course for platoon-leaders and, if possible, have carried out this function. The same holds true for other courses as well. That means that cadre preparation is to be assured and carried out in accordance with the regulations contained in the programs. We must, however, frequently note that new course participants do not know the programs and accordingly were not able to prepare for them. If this were improved it would also assure that a higher standard could be strived for and also reached in the first hours of a course of instruction.

We consider very good and desirable what is already being successfully practiced in a number of units. There a comrade who has already graduated from the academy in the same, if possible, or another course, is assigned to a cadre as a sponsor, as it were. This sponsor familiarizes the comrade with the most important things, including the program, which await him at the academy. This has proven best in our experiences also, because the comrade assigned to the course is thus made familiar with the operation of the school and with the prevailing atmosphere and can orient himself more quickly, which, to be honest, saves us a lot of work and works out favorably for the course of instruction, discipline and order. We say to that openly: Imitate!

We have trouble, and the assigned comrade is in difficulty, if it has not been assured that this or that cadre brought along the necessary documents, clothing and supply items appropriate for the course. In addition to cadre documents (personal files), this concerns primarily: Proof of qualification (as far as already received), militia ID, a complete uniform and protective mask, and two authorized notebooks.

In this connection it is also necessary to point out once again that the assigned comrades were taught the regulations regarding alertness and secrecy, and know the contents of the service order militia well. Finally, timely arrival must be assured. We have good reasons to point out that fact also.

It is probably understandable to everyone that the preparation and carrying out of the training process is made considerably more difficult by non-compliance with the most important criteria here. That is shown particularly in the fact that participants in the classes according to the individual categories is made more difficult and delayed, resulting in the fact that military formation takes up precious training time. It is not possible fully to plan the beginning of training and of advance training. When the participants have differing or even partially

insufficient preparation, additional time and effort are taken up to compensate for this, resulting in decreased accomplishments of the objective of the course of instruction. At the same time, additional demands are made on the class collective in order to give help and support beyond that normally given to individuals.

That means that the process of training and continued training is negatively influenced by the noncompliance with the regulations for the selection and assignment of cadres, the training and qualification of all comrades are affected detrimentally by one or a few. The universal fulfillment of set goals in the training programs can only be reached with increased efforts on the part of the teaching personnel which finally costs them their free time and, over the years, also their health.

High effectiveness and quality in training, coupled with proper selection and assignment of cadres, are the keys to further successes in the increase of combat strength and combat readiness of the militia. Theoretically this is clear; it is important to put the theory into practice.

9328

CSO: 2300

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

DEPARTMENT HEAD DESCRIBES FLIGHT ENGINEER TRAINING

East Berlin MILITAERTECHNIK in German No 5, 1980 signed to press 15 Jul 80
pp 228-230

[Article by Col C. Kippenhahn, commander, Flight Engineer Department, Franz Mehring Officers' College: "'Franz Mehring' Air Force/Air Defense Command Officers' College, Flight Engineer Department"]

[Text] The Flight Engineer Department (FID) at the officers' college of the Civil Air Defense Command (LSK/LV) trains military cadres who are ready and able to assure the combat training of the NVA's flying forces through engineering technology as well as aircraft supply technology under any conditions, as well as in the continuous and timely maintenance of aircraft i.e. aircraft supply technology (FVT).

Based on the variety of demands and tasks, officer cadets receive basic training in the following specialties: "FID officer for cell/engine," "FID officer for aircraft armament," "FID officer for special electrical equipment," or "FID officer for radio and radar equipment," or "officer for flight-technical supplies."

The FID has at its disposal experienced and highly qualified superiors and teachers who, together with the faculty of social sciences and basic training, with the party and FDJ organization, educate the officer cadets to class-conscious officers who are loyally devoted to the party and to their socialist homeland, and who meet the requirements of their first and second assignments.

1. Tasks and Requirements for Officers of the FID or for airport

Technical Security

The engineer and airport technical security of the air force places complicated demands on FID members or FVT personnel. The conscious work of FID or FVT personnel gains in significance especially when the enemy attacks quickly and at extremely low altitudes. The greater their sense of responsibility and qualifications the more extensive the practical capabilities and skills of the young officers, the greater is their contribution to securing the combat readiness of the air force.

This means for the officer of the FID or the FVT:

Supported by a solid and useful Marxist-Leninist knowledge, he trains his subordinates to be class-conscious, combat-ready fighters in the sense of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism.

He trains his subordinates in high military discipline and order, alertness, reliability and honesty.

On the basis of his military technical knowledge, his practical capabilities and skills, he is capable of carrying out the operation, maintenance, care and repair i.e. aircraft supply technology, and to lead and to control collectives in these activities.

He is prepared to form his collective into a military combat collective, to lead it to high accomplishments in socialist competition, to supervise, guide and inspire them with enthusiasm through exemplary work.

He is capable of enduring great physical and psychological stress, and is prepared for the highest accomplishments in combat.

These selected requirements show that during the training process not only the officer cadets, but also the instructors must continuously qualify themselves.

2. Main Points of Emphasis in Training

The officer cadets receive--independent of training specialty or use--complete training in the social sciences, with the subjects distributed over the entire training period, as well as military training in artillery, protection, topographic, tactical, engineering, communication and motor vehicle training (Class V driving permit); in addition they receive training applicable to their specialty in the basic subjects of mathematics, electrotechnology, communication technical systems and automatic guidance.

Experienced officers and college instructors give the officer cadets extensive basic knowledge in natural sciences and tactical technical special knowledge. They are always making the effort to update the teaching materials on the basis of the most modern scientific findings as well as to improve the forms and methods of training in accordance with the requirements of the 1980's. They also have a significant part in shaping the officer cadets into socialist soldier personalities, influence their abilities to make expert decisions, their ability to gain knowledge on their own, their disciplined conduct while guaranteeing high combat readiness of the technology in their charge, and the constant strengthening of their professional motivation of becoming FID or FVT officers in our air force.

The department has under it the following subjects: Cell/Engine, Special Electrical Equipment, Flight Radio and Radar Equipment, Aircraft Armament, and Engineer Technical Safety.

The subject Cell/Engine familiarizes the officer cadets with aerodynamics/flight mechanics, thermodynamics, hydraulic-pneumatic systems, mechanical systems, the cell and the engine, as well as with the theoretical principles, constructive solutions, structure, characteristic processes, principles of operation and interaction of the various structural components and component parts of the aircraft (helicopter) cell as well as the hydraulic and pneumatic installations and flight engines. During their practical training the officer cadets gain basic skills in all control, maintenance and repair work for modern flight technology.

The subject Special Electrical Equipment introduces specialty-related knowledge, capabilities and skills in areas of power supply, engine control, flight regulator and flight navigation. Part of this is the preparation of installations and systems of the special electrical equipment before and between uses as well as restoring its usefulness in case of defects or breakdowns. The greatly increasing size of engine regulation equipment, the extensive industrial measuring and control equipment in the power equipment and the high degree of automation in flight control show the responsibility of the officers in this specialty for flight safety and for the success of the combat mission by the pilot.

Main subjects taught are:

Power equipment systems of planes and helicopters. It is the goal of training to learn the theory behind electrical machines as well as the principles of operation and of energy distribution, as well as of voltage control.

Flight regulators and flight navigation installations, with the goal to be able to assure proper operation, maintenance and control through solid knowledge of the mode of operation, methods and principles of construction of these systems.

Hands-on briefing in the actual installation of the plane or helicopter, which the graduate will use, with the objective of understanding and mastering the tactical technical possibilities, interaction and the use of control and measuring devices.

Combat duty which trains and teaches practical engineer technical safety according to technical documents and technologies, in cooperation with the engineering personnel.

The subject Flight-Radio-Radar Equipment teaches specialty-oriented knowledge, capabilities and skills in the area of radio, radar and flight navigation equipment of planes and helicopters. Part of this is the preparation of this equipment before and between uses as well as restoring its usefulness after a mission.

Main courses taught are:

Principles of signal communication technology, radio location and radio navigation with the objective of teaching operational principles and methods of present and future installations.

Hands-on briefing in actual plane and helicopter installations, their tactical technical possibilities, the structure, interaction with peripheral installations, their measuring devices and their uses.

Combat service enabling the officer cadets in the shortest time possible to assure safety in maintenance, preparation for combat, equipment protection, searching for and analyzing defects, and decisions regarding restoration of combat readiness of aircraft or helicopters, based on current service regulations and technical documentations, in cooperation with engineering personnel.

The subject Aircraft Armament teaches how to maintain, care for, prepare for deployment, use and repair the armament for manned missiles. It teaches technical and specialized basic knowledge and its use in the area of aircraft armament and planes, i.e. helicopters' installations and equipment which guarantee the specific and effective use of these weapons.

The technical and specialized principles are:

Mechanics and its use in aircraft construction, ballistics, dynamics of missiles, of gyrostats, and mechanisms.

Principles of aerodynamics for rapidly flying missiles and their use in aircraft rockets and projectiles.

Principles of guidance and guidance systems of guided rockets.

Problems of missile stabilization

Rocket and projectile propulsion and its use in aircraft weapons

Selected principles of explosives theory, of explosives and their fuses as well as their use in projectiles and bombs

Principles of infrared and laser technology

Principles of computer technology and their use in sighting mechanisms as well as in control and test equipment

Principles of electronic, electrical and electromechanical guidance systems as well as their use.

The subject Engineer-Technical Safety (ITS) fulfills various tasks of very different character. The ITS is for all FID specialties. It teaches the officer cadets extensive knowledge regarding the organization and conduct of ITS in combat training and combat operations of all branches of the NVA air force. The cadets are made familiar with the general rules and principles of work on aircraft, their duties in their first assignments and the contents of the FID service regulations.

This subject is the basis for the FID activity, it extends over all training years and is part of the final examination.

Troop maintenance falls under the same subject. Here the officer cadets receive the necessary equipment for the troop maintenance of flight equipment and other flight technical equipment, they learn about the theory of aviation materials and fuels. In addition, specialists from LSK regiments are being qualified in courses. They are trained for repair of engine cells, as welders for flight materials, users of combine trade union headquarters technology or for nondestructive material testing. They also assure the advanced training of welders and their supervision after TGL 2847. It is the goal of all courses to award or to receive government licenses or permits.

Aircraft supply technology is another field under this subject. It is responsible for the training of officers in airport security. After graduating as officers, they work as platoon leaders or deputy TA in a flight technical company or in an installation of the Rear Services. The officer cadets of this branch receive a wide spectrum of knowledge. They are able to organize and to lead the airport technical safety of flying and helicopter regiments, to prepare, use, maintain and repair aircraft supply technology, as well as to supply fuels and technical gases timely, continuously and properly.

Special training and basic tactical-technical training occurs in the following fields:

Power machines and operating machines

Special technology (construction, structure, functioning)

Combat service (use and maintenance of aircraft supply and special technology such as airfield fuel supply vehicles, liquid fuel transport and reloading technology, aircraft starting devices, among others; and Read Area security (tactics, organization, leadership).

3. Practice-Related Training of Officer Cadets

For the practice-related training of officer cadets, the FID has in addition to rooms, laboratories and workshops a training airport too. Already in the first year of training, the cadets gain practical abilities and skills at the training stands as well as the training combat technology. Until into their second year of training, they primarily learn elements of service control. In their third year they are fully familiarized with the operation of engineer-technical safety and the execution, supervision and control of all work in relation with the use and maintenance of aircraft technology or aircraft supply technology.

Only after they have mastered it in its entirety does their practical training at the 'fliers' college come to an end. They gain their first practical experience at the beginning of their first year in a fighter bomber wing or in a flight technical battalion. In their second year they improve their capabilities and skill in leading military collectives in the role of squad leader in the

troop practical training courses I and II or in socialist military training. Simultaneously they study the practical leadership activity of an officer in his first and second assignment, by making them part of the technical and flight services. The final practical training course III for cadets in their third year takes place in the regiments and companies in which they serve as officers. Here they must prove themselves, because they work in those military collectives to which they will be assigned or which they will lead politically and militarily after graduation.

Love for their socialist homeland is expected above all else from officer applicants. This should be reflected in their entire demeanor and in all their actions, especially in seeking greater friendship with the Soviet Union and the other socialist states. In addition we expect openness, honesty, cooperation and modesty in forming true socialist relationships in the training and combat collectives. That means being socially active even before beginning the honor service in the NVA. Emphasis is placed on work in the socialist youth alliance, in the worker communes of the Society for Sport and Technology, or in the collectives of officer applicants under leadership of the kreis military command. All possibilities given in schools, enterprises and local installations should be taken advantage of in order to gain the necessary prerequisites such as political clarity about the work of the NVA, physical endurance and professional ambition.

The officer applicant for training in the area of flight engineer service and aircraft supply technology must have a love for technical problems of modern weapons systems of the air force and must have an interest in carrying out the organization and leadership of engineering or airport technical safety. His thinking and actions must be aimed at solving all political, military and specialized tasks with initiative, while taking economic problems into consideration.

The faculty itself will make every effort in order to further the applicant's professional motivation. For that reason the political, military and specialized training takes place at a high level under troop related conditions, and training --in accordance with the steadily increasing demands in the technological revolution in the military--aims at the highest results.

9328
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GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

PROBLEMS CITED IN DAMAGE TO AIRCRAFT ENGINES

East Berlin MILITAERTECHNIK in German No 5, 1980 signed to press 15 Jul 80
pp 250-253

[Article by Lt Col R. Beck: "Prevent Intake of Foreign Bodies Into Aircraft Engines; How Can Damage to Turbine Engines Be Reduced?"]

[Text] Negative effects result in three respects whenever it is necessary in the air force to exchange aircraft engines prior to the termination of their required operating hours.

First of all, the unit's combat readiness is impaired because the particular aircraft is not operational for the period required for the failure investigation and the engine change.

Second, flight safety is endangered when engine damage is not recognized at the right time.

Third, we get heavy military-economic losses when only a small part of the required operating hours was "used up."

It follows from all this that everything must be done to prevent premature engine changes. The absolutely critical point here is represented by engine damage due to the intake of foreign bodies.

Engine failure due to technical causes essentially springs from design factors as well as the quality of production or industrial repair, apart from the few cases of gross mishandling by rated and engineering-technical personnel. The modern turbojet engines used in our LSK [Air Force] have a very high degree of operational reliability. There are rarely any technical causes leading to engine change. The critical aspect of "intake of foreign bodies" also springs from the fact that, considering the current level of development of our engines, because of the need for minimizing the overall pressure losses in the intake part as well as the dry weight and the frontal cross-section, there are no devices for intercepting foreign bodies in front of the air intake of the axial compressor.

1. Responsibility of Commanders and Supervisors

The three conditions for the intake of foreign bodies, mentioned in the article by Colonel Kippenhahn (MILITAERTECHNIK, No 4, 1980), characterize the multiplicity of possibilities and at the same time the danger of foreign bodies getting into the engine. It follows from this that the specialized services, which organize flight operations, which provide back-up support, guidance, and supervision, must together prevent the intake of foreign bodies. But that job can be done successfully only if the particular commander educates the supervisors of all pertinent specialized sections and, if necessary, forces them consistently to implement the requirement for cleanliness and orderliness in their area of responsibility.

The body of regulations applicable to flight operations and technical support services, the design of the aircraft and its ground equipment, as well as the requirements regarding the condition of flight operations areas (aprons, hardstands, taxiways, and runways) to a great extent take into consideration the danger of foreign bodies being sucked into the engine. Nevertheless, we still have such cases where engine failures result from the intake of foreign bodies. What therefore must be done in order to prevent premature engine change due to foreign body intake?

Above all we must extensively eliminate all causes and circumstances promoting the intake of foreign bodies. All personnel must be able and must be trained responsibly to obey the regulations, to keep aircraft and ground equipment in excellent technical condition, and to assure the proper condition of flight operations areas. Whenever damage on compressor blades and other engine components is observed, it will be necessary to make technically justified decisions as to the permissibility or impermissibility of continuing the particular engine in use. It is furthermore necessary to utilize all possibilities of unit-level repair as a function of the design features involved in the particular engine type. Commanders on all echelons are fully responsible for the general condition of the equipment while the particular flight engineering supervisor is responsible for technical inspection and reporting as well as the instructions given on the basis of those reports.

2. Eliminate Causes and Conducive Circumstances

Table 1 shows the essential danger sources regarding foreign body intake. It is not supposed to be complete and it is intended merely to help identify and eliminate causes and conducive circumstances promoting engine failure.

The cases mentioned in the left-hand column as a rule cause such severe engine damage that it cannot be repaired on the unit level. In some cases, the costs of industrial repair can be the same as the initial procurement

costs, that is to say, repair will no longer make any sense. The multiplicity of possible causes underscores the complex character which all efforts to protect engines against foreign bodies must reveal. It might be added at this point that, under the conditions of routine unit operation, it is not always easy to eliminate all causes and conducive circumstances.

Table 1. Causes and Conducive Circumstances Promoting Intake of Foreign Bodies

Foreign body is already in or within immediate vicinity of entry part	Foreign body is whirled up and gets into action radius of suction forces of entry part
Mishandling by flight operations personnel (violations of regulations and technologies, deficient inspection)	Defective condition of flight operations areas, separation of surface layer (blacktop, synthetic resin)
Failure to remove foreign bodies (tools, blank covers, nondurable material, etc.) in suction range	Breaks, cracks, crumbling of concrete, use of blacktop surfacing in places subjected to heavy stress due to gas jet and fuel leak losses
Failure to close hatches in suction shaft, combined with foreign bodies located in suction area behind the hatch lid to be closed	Defective fastening of taxiway wheels
Impermissible changes on ground equipment leading to the loosening of parts in the suction range	Defects in the cleaning of flight operations areas prior to the start of flight operations (wire remnants from sweeping brushes, concrete, blacktop, and ice remnants)
Taking along of foreign bodies in pockets of special work uniforms	Lack of cleanliness in parking areas (remnants of safety wires, screws, cleaning rags, etc.)
Incorrect donning of and loose parts in special work uniforms	Failure to sweep hardstand pad prior to starting engine
Staying in safety zones with engines running	Improper order at parking area (depositing of ground equipment, canvas, tools, etc.)
Defective attachment (securing) of self-locking screws and snap closures in suction range (for example, use of self-locking trigger-guard screws of incorrect length)	Contamination of flight operations areas due to violations of regulations regarding driving on air field

Design and production-engineering deficiencies (manufacture and industrial repair)

Driving on flight operations areas with dirty vehicles (for example, pebbles stuck in tire tread)

Deficient attachment (securing) of self-locking screws and snap closures in suction range (including on-ground equipment)

Unauthorized personnel driving on flight operations areas

Deficiencies in driving through water

Improper behavior by rated personnel
Failure to maintain required taxiing intervals

Use of unsecured screws in suction range, defective welding seams, crack formation in suction range (including on-ground equipment)

Failure to watch wind direction during takeoff of groups of aircraft

Loose rivet in suction range

Using taxiways not cleared for use
Insufficient inspection during acceptance of flight operations areas
Pulling out of power dive too low during ground target firing practice using unguided rockets
Failure to observe ornithological situation

The limited time available for preparing aircraft for a repeat takeoff, unfavorable lighting conditions during night flight, severe physical and psychological stresses on personnel during working while wearing protective clothing, unfavorable weather conditions and the requirement for short takeoff intervals during unit takeoffs make it difficult to meet all requirements for the protection of engines against foreign bodies. It is therefore all the more necessary to make sure that both the technical support service and the flight operations service are prepared, carried out, and supported on the basis of a high level of discipline as well as excellent capabilities and skills on the part of personnel. Every participating comrade, regardless of whether he is a tank truck driver, an aircraft mechanic, or an aircraft commander, must carry out the regulations in an exemplary fashion and must be able to recognize danger sources and act accordingly. This in particular means that the commanders and supervisors must always analyze their organizational and educational activities from the viewpoint of "foreign bodies" and consistently implement the corresponding regulations.

3. Recognize and Eliminate Causes of Actual Engine Failure

The examination of actual engine failure plays a special role in recognizing and eliminating weak points. This is currently not yet being done every where on the basis of uniform criteria and with the required effectiveness.

In what direction is the investigation to be conducted?

Inspection of Engine Damage (As a rule: Compressor Rotor Blade)

In case of minor damage (so-called dents [impacts]), it is first of all necessary to determine whether the engine can continue to be used or what repair possibilities exist under unit conditions (see chapters 4 and 5). On the basis of the shape, dimensions, number, and location of damage points it is then necessary to work out the most accurate possible concepts as to the type of foreign body (make photos, sketches). In special cases, it is possible to conduct trace-plot investigations, calling upon criminal investigation specialists. Here it is necessary to keep in mind that the origin of the foreign body has not yet been established as a result of the investigation findings, for example, "hexagonal screw, M-7, shaft length 10 mm."

Investigation To Determine Missing Parts

All parts located in the suction range of the aircraft as well as ground equipment and tools must be subjected to a careful visual inspection (main point: see left-hand column in Table 1). The tool and the 1:1 ground equipment set must be checked for completeness.

Checking Documentation

Starting with the last compressor inspection recorded (as a rule, the last flight preparation phase), it is necessary in detail and in chronological order to record the "record" of the engine: flight preparation, pre-flight check, flying shifts (broken down for each individual flight), trial runs, tool time checkups, etc. For each stage it is necessary to determine the date, the time, the personnel involved, and any unusual observations. Furthermore it is necessary to determine, for the individual flight shifts, the wind speed, wind direction, takeoff direction, as well as, for the individual flights, the number of the exercise, takeoff interval, and takeoff formation. During ground target firing practice using unguided rockets, it is necessary to look into the maintenance of flight patterns.

Inspection of Flight Operations Area

Here it is necessary to examine the structural condition of aprons, forward takeoff line, taxiways, runways, and braking stations, including the gu. wires and safety line. Besides, it is necessary to look into compliance

with and effectiveness of specified cleaning operations and acceptance functions as well as the implementation of the driving patterns for motor vehicles.

Interviewing Rated, Engineering-Technical, and Supervisory Personnel Involved

The basis of the interview might consist of written reports which the personnel involved must prepare in advance regarding all phases of flight preparation and implementation. In this process we clear up the questions arising from prior investigations and reports regarding the development of operations and any unusual incidents as well as compliance with military regulations.

Drafting the Conclusions

By analyzing the above-mentioned investigations, we can determine the cause or possible causes. If it is impossible to come up with clear statements regarding this situation--something which happens particularly frequently in the case of the so-called "dents"--then the minimum requirement calls for us to list all weak points in the entire process of flight preparation and implementation in a thorough fashion.

Spelling Out Measures To Be Taken

These measures are designed to eliminate the above-mentioned causes or weak points. The following can be such measures, for example:

Repairing the engine,

Suspension of personnel and deadlining of equipment,

Readmission after suspension,

Analysis of situation together with rated, engineering-technical, and back-up support personnel,

Instruction on specific topics (for example, compressor inspection),

Preventive inspections on aircraft and ground equipment,

Design changes on aircraft and ground equipment,

Organizational determinations (for example, specific determination of taxi and driving patterns, inspection of taxiways, additional cleaning work),

Improvement of structural condition of flight operations surfaces,

Drafting of technical reports, training materials, etc.,

Disciplinary and damage restitution measures.

As a function of specific conditions one can of course omit or expand individual elements of the investigation procedure described here while other steps can be added. The important thing is to make sure that the investigation will be carried out not only by the flight engineering service but together with responsible officers from all specialized services involved (for example, air base support service).

4. Make Technically Justified Decisions

In order to exchange engines, which have sucked in foreign bodies, only if operational safety is endangered, the manufacturer will determine technical conditions for blade damage as a function of the design features. If these conditions are exceeded, then the engine must be changed. In this way we avoid unnecessary engine changes in case of rust spots, small nicks, erosion on blades, etc., which result from very tiny foreign bodies. The following, for example, are permissible on the blades of the first compressor stage of a certain engine type (Figure 2):

Dents on no more than ten blades,

On one blade, no more than five dents, including up to three dents at the entry edge and up to two dents at the exit edge,

The dents must be at least 10 mm away from each other,

Dents at the leading and trailing edge of a blade must not be located on one particular radius,

For each blade, one dent with a maximum depth of 0.5 mm, the others less than 0.5 mm deep,

There must be no dents in zone "B."

The decision as to the further use or the removal of the engine in case of determination of dents must be made very carefully and must be technically justified. If the wrong decision is made, we either endanger flight safety or we get an unjustified heavier economic damage plus an additional expense. Past experience tell us that the dent depth is overestimated in case of visual estimation without the use of measurement instruments.

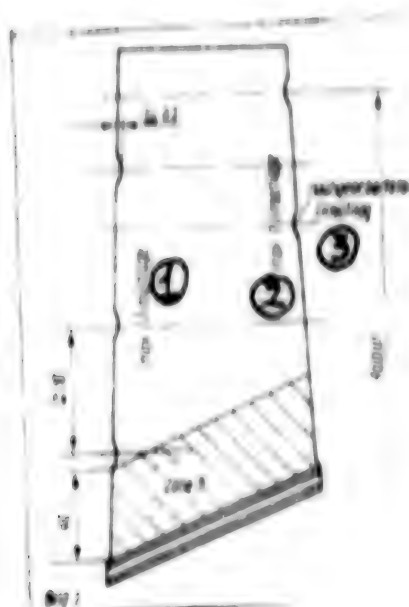


Figure 2. Permissible damage to a blade in the first compressor stage. Key: 1--maximum of three dents; 2--maximum of two dents; 3--repaired dent.

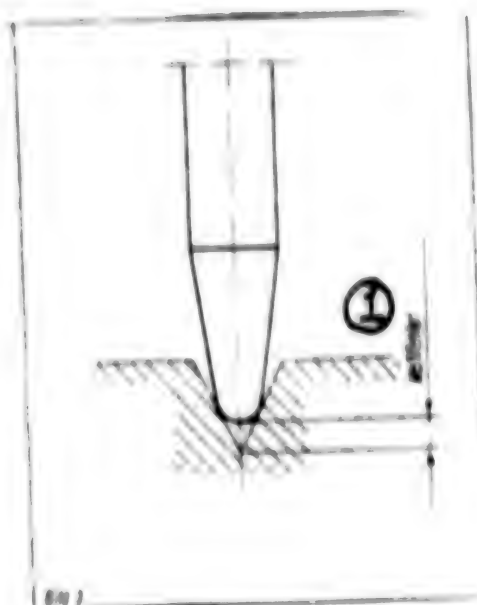


Figure 3. Measurement error in depth measurement using precision instrument. Key: 1--measurement error.

5. Possibilities of Judging Dents

The visual inspection of the first and second compressor stages as a rule is accomplished only with a good light source, without special aids, because in most aircraft there is a possibility of getting at the compressor intake via the suction shaft. For the purpose of visual inspection of the rear compressor stages, the manufacturer has provided special hatches in the compressor housing, whereby aids such as illuminated mirrors, endoscopes, etc., must be used. Here there is a danger that the magnification effect of the optical aids might cause the dents to be overestimated. It is therefore absolutely necessary to make sure that personnel will acquire a certain training level for this type of work with the help of comparison blades. Because visual overestimation of dent depth also results from the shadow created by burr formation and dirt, it is necessary to remove the burr from the dent before making any judgment and to clean the dent with an organic solvent.

When cracks are observed in a blade, it is necessary in every case to exchange the engine or, if possible, the particular blade. In case of a suspected crack, a suitable crack examination method must be used.

The measurement of the depth of these dents is possible only if the blades are easily accessible and if we can stop the entry of additional foreign

bodies during measurement (for example, in the first compressor stage or in compressors whose housings can be opened under utilization conditions). In the GDR air force, a portable measurement equipment set was assembled for use under field unit conditions on the basis of innovator proposals (figure 4); it facilitates direct and indirect depth measurement. For direct depth measurement, we use a precision instrument which was provided with a sensor tip and special support legs (figure 5). This measurement method is simple and quickly applicable but has the disadvantage that, in case of dents with a radius where the base of the dent is smaller than the radius of the sensor tip, we get a measurement error which is difficult to judge (figure 3).

In case of indirect depth measurement, we make a negative casting of the dent. For this purpose, after removal of the burr, we paint a separation agent on the damaged spot and we then form a small depression around the dent with plasticine. Into this little depression we pour the mold mass which has been stirred together from two components. After the hardening and removal of the negative casting, we can measure the impact [dent] depth with the precision instrument as a rise on the negative casting. This method extensively eliminates the measurement error connected with direct depth measurement but its handling is more expensive.

The foreign body which goes by the name of "bird" creates special requirements when it comes to deciding on the further use of the particular engine.

After a bird has been sucked in, the compressor blades are often not distorted but there is a danger that feather or meat remnants might clog the pipelines leading to the air outlet from the compressor. If these pipelines run outside the compressor housing and, which is the case as a rule, contain filters in front of sensitive structural components and systems, then we have an objective inspection possibility. A technically justified decision to be sure however requires a considerable effort but yields clear result.

If however the air flows through the interior of the compressor (for example, the shaft) and if such elements as the cooling-air ducts in the turbine rotor blades--which are so extraordinarily important for operational safety--are being supplied, then there is a greater danger that these narrow ducts might become clogged. In that case there is no objective inspection possibility on the unit level. To make a decision, we thus face the difficult task of determining whether a bird did fly in, whether that can lead to clogging, or whether we are dealing here only with parts or remnants of a bird (separation due to the sharp-edged parts of the air intake)--something which does not constitute a danger. In the first case of course the engine must be changed.

From this viewpoint it is understandable that the subject heading of "bird intake" accounts for a very large percentage of premature engine changes

due to foreign body entry, particularly in engines with interior cooling of turbine rotor blades. Here we particularly crassly run into the requirement which applies to all categories of foreign body entry: by means of complex efforts it is necessary to eliminate conditions for foreign body entry and, in case of the appearance of such a situation, it is necessary to make responsible decisions.

6. Utilizing All Unit Repair Facilities

These possibilities depend first of all on the engine design. As a rule, we can repair only engines with a limited number or limited dimensions of dents in compressor rotor blades under unit conditions. From the viewpoint of high military-economic savings, which can be achieved in this way, it is necessary fully to utilize these repair possibilities.

Here are some examples:

We clean the blades in case of dents which, in keeping with the manufacturer's technical conditions, permit the further utilization of the engine ("permissible dents"). The purpose here is to prevent the development of cracks along dents. The cleaning must be done with fine-grained grinding-cloths (specified by the manufacturer) in such a manner that the dent can be completely removed and that we will get small grooves, especially in a direction lateral to the blade edge. This is permissible only if we can be adequately sure that no foreign bodies (grinding agents, chips) will get into the compressor.

The exchange of blades and the exchange of the first compressor stage are accomplished on engines, which facilitate this change by virtue of their design, according to the technology provided by the manufacturer.

7. Conclusion

The above article is designed to help the reader understand the need for the absolute protection of engines against foreign bodies and the complexity of this problem. The problem of "foreign body intake" is one of those areas where only through circumspect, responsible behavior, coupled with solid knowledge and ability, often without any major additional effort, we can accomplish the task which was formulated as follows by our minister of national defense:

"Our responsibility as socialist military personnel commands us to secure the required level of combat strength and combat readiness of the armed forces coupled with the lowest possible burden on the economic potential."

PHOTO CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Damaged compressor rotor blades.

Figure 4. Testing box for depth measurement.

Figure 5. Measuring the dent depth with a precision measurement instrument.

READY-ALERT SYSTEM METEOROLOGICAL SERVICES DESCRIBED

East Berlin FLIEGER-REVUE in German No 9, Sep 80 pp 383-385

[Article by Horst Karos: "National People's Army (NVA)--Flight Meteorologists"]

[Text] There is a popular saying to the effect that, when the frogs croak for a long time and when the swallows fly high, we are going to have nice weather but when the swallows fly low and when the frogs jump, we are going to have bad weather. Those animals, whose behavior does supply some hint as to changes in the weather, however cannot be used as accurate weather forecasters. Anybody who wants to get precise information on the weather simply will not be satisfied with the report to the effect that the weather is going to get nicer or worse. Military pilots for example need a large volume of information about the current and future weather situation in order to be able safely to accomplish their flight mission. The faster, the further, the higher, or the lower they fly, the more thorough must the weather data for them be. This is why every air field of our NVA [National People's Army] has its own weather station. We want to report about the work of such a flight weather station here.

Nine Men and One Woman

The Hermann Matern Fighter Wing has a long record of good results in airborne combat training and in the accomplishment of assignments on routine duty missions. These results last but not least are also the work of the wing's flight meteorologists because they help decide which planned alternate flight plans are to be considered for the particular day, with what degree of safety the flying missions can be accomplished, and the way in which certain special missions can be accomplished. Here, nine men and one woman assemble the weather data and draw and interpret the necessary weather charts. The team leader is the 36-year-old graduate meteorologist Maj Klaus Wolf who, back in 1967, completed his studies at Karl Marx University in Leipzig. Nobody can work here without the proper qualifications and without constant advanced training. This why, during my visit, I did not get to meet the only woman among the group of the wing's weathermakers, as it were. She is Sylvia Kirchner. This 20-year-old lady just happens to

be in Dresden where she is taking a special correspondence course to become a meteorological engineer. Lt Bernd Schmidt already has achieved this skill level. Graduate meteorologists 1st Lt Joachim Schorlemmer and Lt Norbert Strauss likewise graduated from Humboldt University in Berlin a long time ago. Sgt 1st Cl Waldemar Ziegler, a career NCO, has been a category-II team leader for several years. He is assisted by Cpls Arne Hartmann, Bernd Wiemert, and Frank Trabhardt. They acquired the fundamentals required for synoptics specialist (that is the technical term covering experts in the field of weather forecasting) at the NCO School of LSK/LV (Air Force/Air Defense). In conclusion we might mention PFC Ralph Schoenherr who has the job title of assistant in flight meteorology.

During the recent period, this team considerably contributed to enabling the wing to fulfill the airborne combat training plan in terms of flying hours and flying elements month by month with a high level of flight safety; this was due last but not least to the thorough briefing and flight hazard reports from the meteorologists.

At the Flight Weather Station

The rooms of the wing's weather station are brightly lit and well air-conditioned day and night. Here the comrades know at any moment where in Central Europe it happens to be raining or snowing, what the temperatures are along the Baltic Sea or in the Thuringian Forest, how the wind speed and direction change with the altitude, and many other data. By radio and wire, the weather station personnel however are constantly informed not only about the weather in Central Europe but also on other continents.

While Maj Klaus Wolf was explaining some measurement instruments to me, a radio-teletype unit working at high speed picked up columns of letters and numbers. For the uninitiated, these data are a big mystery. Major Wolf waits until the teletype machine has shut off and then he rips the printed sheet out. With his index finger he points to the 11th item showing the letters lhbp and explains to me that those were data from the Budapest airport. Thus I finally learned what temperature and visibility conditions, what wind speed and wind direction prevailed 20 minutes earlier in Budapest, how high the clouds were above the Hungarian capital, what their shapes were, etc.

In addition to the data from the weather stations at air terminals, the comrades naturally also get data from other stations, such as data from radio probe ascents or they get ready-made radar weather maps via so-called facsimile receivers which likewise provide information on high-altitude winds, thunderstorm activity, and other weather phenomena.

All of these data are supplemented by measurements taken within our own air field perimeter. For example, every quarter hour, the automatic altitude measurement instrument measures the lower boundary of the cloud

cover. By means of a wind measurement instrument, the wing's flight meteorologists learn every 10 minutes what the average wind speed is in the main landing direction of the runway. Then Sgt 1st CI Waldemar Ziegler and his comrades very skillfully and accurately enter the data from other sources and their own data on the colored weather map. Around the clock, the NVA flight meteorologists carry out their duties in a three-shift system and every hour a new, up to date weather map is made.

This map helps the meteorologist on duty in preparing the reports and during flight operations it enables him at all times to give accurate information on the weather at our own airfield and in the surrounding areas. But that is not enough. The comrades at the weather station must be able to provide the fighter pilots with detailed information also on the current weather situation at airfields which have been earmarked as intermediate or alternate airfields.

Danger Between Heaven and Earth

This high degree of action readiness, which is also demanded of the flight meteorologists, is due to the flying missions which modern fighter-interceptors can and must accomplish today. As we know, they fly both at very low and at extremely high altitudes and they do so at high speed. Nevertheless, even the most modern fighter aircraft are not independent of the weather; in spite of all of the advanced technology, poor visibility, turbulent air movements, rainfall and snow do influence the course of their flights. Thus, the flying attitude of a fighter plane can be changed in the turbulence range of a thundercloud without the aircraft commander always being able to react to that right away. Let us take another example. Inaccurate data on air pressure near the ground can lead to erroneous altitude estimates and, during low-level flight or during a landing approach, this can lead to complications.

Meteorological Reconnaissance Flight

Even when flight operations are scheduled, the flight meteorologists of the Hermann Matern Fighter Wing are particularly in demand. Before the start of each flying shift, a crew takes off for a weather reconnaissance flight during which it flies along all routes and over all areas in which training and combat flights are to be made. This is done mostly one hour before the first takeoff. Before the comrades of the meteorological flight reconnaissance crew get into their plane, they consult directly along the forward flight line with the meteorologists on duty who, depending upon the duty schedule, might be Wolf, Schorlemmer, Strauss, or Schmidt. On the basis of the up to date weather chart, the meteorologist on duty then briefs them on the weather to be anticipated.

Then the weather fliers take off, they compare the weather forecast with the actually prevailing weather and record certain observations in writing. After landing, the weather fliers confirm the forecast for the meteorologist

or they make the corresponding supplementary entries. Only then is the "weathermaker" on duty available to the flight operations officer and the unit commander who then, on the basis of the by now complete weather report, determine the particular alternate flight plan.

When all of the aircraft commanders assigned to the particular flying shift get together, so that the flight director [operations officer] or commander can give his final instructions, the flight meteorologist is the first one to speak up. He explains the current and anticipated weather situation to the aircraft commanders, he points out any special aspects, for example, unusual things to be watched out for during the takeoff and landing phase.

The men around Maj Klaus Wolf naturally do not get any rest then either, even though the first takeoff may have taken place. They must continue to keep track of the development of the weather situation, they must analyze all weather data and if necessary immediately notify the flight director as to any weather changes, if such changes could influence flight operations. It then happens by no means infrequently that an alternate flight plan must be selected during the particular flying shift. The commander's decision on that is prepared by the data from the flight meteorologist.

The visit to the flight meteorologists of the "Hermann Matern" Fighter Wing, the conversations with Maj Klaus Wolf and his companions clearly showed me what important, responsible, and also interesting activities these comrades are involved in. They exert direct influence on making sure that the combat value of their wing will meet the requirements arising from the missions of our national defense.

5058

CSO: 2300

JOURNAL VIEWS PROBLEMS OF MEDIA CENSORSHIP

Warsaw PRAWO I ZYCIE in Polish No 40, 5 Oct 80 p 12

[Article by Marian Flasiński: "Censorship; on a Model of Legal Regulation"]

[Text] There is no doubt that one of the most important causes of the deformation of socialist democracy was the blocking of an important channel of public information in books and the press and on the radio and television. This diagnosis, presented by the striking working forces on the coast, has been reflected in the agreement with the government. This agreement confirms the necessity of legal limitation on censorship interference so that censorship remains within the essential boundaries which are essential to protect the most important interests of the socialist state, state and economic secrets, and the morals, customs, and feelings of believers and nonbelievers.

The chief criticism is focused on the past practices of the Chief Office for the Control of Press, Publishing, and Public Performances, as the government body responsible to the chairman of the Council of Ministers.

When we consider more deeply the problem as to the sort of method which assures that the society has access to reliable and current information and at the same time that protects effectively the basic values of the socialist society and state, we should nonetheless meekly ask whether in fact the GUKPPiW [Control of Press, Publishing, and Public Performances] bears the main responsibility for failing to disseminate the mass dimedia of real, critical information about what has happened in the state and in particular about the growing conflicts and their causes, for example, voluntarism, megalomania, inability, and to a certain extent also the excesses of power of certain representatives of the administration, should we not?

Even for persons who have come into contact with censorship only in a casual, intermediate way, it is obvious that many decisions of the GUKPPIW have resulted simply from prohibitions and commands determined outside of and usually above the chief office, sometimes through the inspiration of the government leadership at the time to defend the special immediate interests of government departments, economic organizations, regions, or even individual parties. Nonetheless the odium of public criticism has fallen on GUKPPIW employees.

At the same time the careful reader of the press and books published during the past few years could note rather substantial differences in the reliability of material included in various publications. This means that sometimes the state censor was more liberal than the censorship exercised by the heads of certain publishing houses. Many writers can find in their own experience examples of mishaps with those publishers who used censorship as an excuse for their unwillingness to allow their lack of reliability and courage to be made visible. The most convincing example of the hypothesis that GUKPPIW was not the only party responsible for the creation of such idyllic myths divorced from all reality was Dziennik Telewizyjny. There were few people who were not aware who it was who was the chief director and censor of this "hour of prosperity," and it was not the GUKPPIW people.

In order to weigh the assumptions for the censorship law, it will be essential to note that if censorship practice was based solely on the regulations in force from the 1946 decree, improper interference would be extremely infrequent.

Let us recall that in keeping with the decree on the creation of the GUKPPIW, dated 5 July 1946 (with later changes) censorship control has as its goal the prevention of a threat to the system of the Polish state, the waging of military propaganda, the revealing of state secrets, action detrimental to the international relations of the Polish state, violation of the law or morality, and leading public opinion astray by giving information inconsistent with reality.

And so the decree limited state censorship interference to the minimum necessary for the basic good of the state and the society. If despite this things reached the point of a basic blocking of reliable public information, then at any rate it was not the decree which thrust these restrictions on anyone.

The above statement gives rise to the conclusion that even the best legal solutions which precisely restrict the authority of censorship cannot insure the proper flow of information, if they boil down merely to listing the restrictions, without containing any guarantees or creating any mechanisms to insure against others or against very subjective decisions about what the society should know and what it should not know.

In this situation the main legislative effort concerning the censorship law should be focused mainly on the construction of proper safeguards and corrective mechanisms to prevent the distortions which, as experience shows, arise in the absence of open control.

Hence, the first general conclusion quite obviously comes to the fore. The new law should guarantee the society the right to full, reliable information, and exception to this principles can occur only on the basis of the law's regulations in effect which are publically announced.

Somebody can reply that any general regulation can be interpreted in various ways depending upon who is doing the interpreting and what he wants to read into it. That is true. Such a danger exists, but it can be minimized by properly locating the system of control in the state's organizational structure.

Where Should Censorship Be Put?

Past experience shows that making censorship subordinate to the top body of the administration, that is, the chairman of the Council of Ministers, has not produced socially beneficial effects. This is understandable, because the government is directly responsible for the state of the economy, the extent to which the principles of democracy are carried out, planning errors, administration, and so on.

But after all the right to reliable, objective information and a forthright assessment of reality is the basic right of every citizen and also one of the main conditions of democracy in a highly organized society. This right is of particular significance in a socialist society, in which joint governance of the state is an essential element of the system. Here it is worthwhile to note that only objective, reliable information gives the citizen the possibility of sharing in decisionmaking and a sense of responsibility for the affairs of the state, and hence can liberate that necessary initiative which provides the impetus for social development.

Finally, reliable information is a point of departure for accomplishing authentic control of the administration and prevents most social and economic distortions of the development of the society. Giving rise to a sense of national solidarity and faith in the leadership, it bolsters the real power of the state and all its bodies.

All this leads us to the conclusion that in order for the censorship office, which has the authority to intervene, not to be able to be exploited to limit civil rights, for example, and above all, in the realm of control of the administration, it must not be put under the supervision and jurisdiction of that body of the administration, not even at the highest level.

The body which in this situation could and should take over the supervision of the censorship office is the Council of State, as the supreme body of state leadership.

From the theoretical-legal viewpoint such placement would also be more proper, because let us weigh the fact that other major bodies of the state which guard socialist propriety and civil rights are under the very same Council of State.

Besides this, those arguments which have recently been raised for the removal of the Supreme Chamber of Control from the supervision of the chairman of the Council of Ministers also speak for locating the censorship office in the way mentioned above.

This is the result of the conviction that a properly functioning socialist democracy must be based on the principle that the government governs under authentic social control exerted mainly by the leadership bodies selected by the society and also directly by the right to public information and criticism.

Control of Censorship Decisions

The most recent new feature of the administrative procedure code has made permanent the principle of dual stages, which is one of the canons of procedure before the bodies of the democratic state. This two-stage system must also be assured in procedure brought about by a censorship decision, before the ultimate decision can be appealed to the Supreme Administrative Court.

Meanwhile, given the present shape of the GUKPPIW, this is not possible, because it has a uniform structure, because the local departments are delegated, and not separate units, of a lower order, subordinate only organizationally to their central office. In this situation it seems essential to return to the old structure in which the control body of the first stage would be district, intervovodship, or voivodship control offices, with the Chief Office being the second stage.

There are other important considerations which speak on behalf of this solution. The first is the need to take into consideration the central office leadership's right to correct erroneous and improper decisions of subordinate officers, if it is supposed to be responsible for these decisions. The second, still more important, is the assurance of the possibility of making rapid corrections which is so important in the case of information of short-term time, which usually cannot be assured to an adequate extent by court proceedings.

Scope of Publication Restrictions

When we consider the entry on restrictions justifying censorship intervention, first of all there arises the question as to whether in the

new censorship law such an entry is necessary at all, inasmuch a whole number of publication restrictions are imposed by other laws, such as the penal code, the misdemeanor code, and the civil code.

Such a question must be answered in the affirmative, if only to show that the understanding between the government and the strikers was inculcated in this material too. Nonetheless, the legal note must not be casuistic and should not repeat regulations of the penal, civil, and similar codes, for example concerning the offenses against the sacred, dignity, and so on.

As a consequence I come to the conclusion that in the new censorship law there should be only those publication restrictions which are not implied in other legal regulations.

Censorship and Editorial Policy

The tremendous amount of information in the modern world requires that it be very carefully selected. This is the task of editors and publishers, and not state censorship, but sui generis selection is also censorship, because only some information is given wider currency, while other information is held up. Nevertheless, this selection should be or is made on a different basis, that is, the priority of the information which is more valuable or interesting to the whole society or those groups of it which are assumed to be consumers of the information.

The priority given to a certain type of information or work or artistic works is established by the publisher through the editor-in-chief or an editorial committee.

The above fact, which is after all banal, is worth remembering in the deliberations on the shape of the censorship law, which can only to a certain extent stimulate the proper flow of valuable social information, but cannot on the other hand insure its universality and quality.

These preliminary remarks on the construction of the model of the draft of the censorship law are being limited only to a few basic problems. Many meritorical, structural, and procedural questions fall outside its scope. Particularly difficult and doubtful can be the procedural regulations related to the fact that procedure which may be required of the censorship office has not been completely adapted to the specific details of censorship work.

It would also be worth considering whether work on the censorship law should not be related to work on the press law, inasmuch as it is generally and basically correctly assumed that the decree of the president of the Polish Republic dated 21 November 1938 (Press law) is practically not in force.

At any rate, it would seem that PRAWO I ZYCIE needs to publish a forthright exchange of ideas on the sort of legal regulation of the activity of the mass media which on the one hand can guarantee the society the right to reliable information and on the other hand can effectively protect the fundamental values and interests of the socialist state and all its citizens.

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RESPONSIBILITY FOR COMPENSATION FOR DAMAGES UNDER SOCIALIST LAW

Bucharest REVISTA ROMANA DE DREPT in Romanian Jul 80 pp 68-77

[Article by Lect Dr Renee Sanilevici: "Delictual liability in the System of the Civil Codes of European Socialist Countries"]

[Text] The present study is a continuation of the one published in REVISTA ROMANA DE DREPT, No 1, 1979, regarding the object and the system of the socialist civil codes, within the framework of the concern of studying the experience of socialist countries in drawing up the civil code, in order to point out the advantages of one or another of the solutions adopted.

I. Traditionally, delictual liability is considered a legal institution distinct from contractual liability.

In modern legal literature, the majority of the authors agree on the unity of the legal institution of liability, although there are some differences between delictual liability and contractual liability. In many works, the conditions and the effects of delictual civil liability are studied concurrently with those of contractual liability.¹

The system and the place of the regulation of delictual civil liability in the civil codes of the European socialist countries differ, but, through one formula or another of legislative technique, their unity is established.

Thus, one solution is that of the single regulation.² This solution was adopted by the Czechoslovak Civil Code of 1964, which does not recognize the distinction between contractual liability and delictual liability and contains a single regulation in Part VI, titled "Liability for Damages and Enrichment Without Just Cause." The provisions on liability refer only to relations between citizens and between citizens and socialist organizations. In the Economic Code, too, which contains rules applicable to the socialist organizations, contractual liability and delictual liability are regulated by the same text.

In all the other codes--the Hungarian Civil Code of 1959, the Polish Civil Code of 1964, the RSFSR Civil Code of 1964 and the GDR Civil Code of 1976--delictual liability is regulated by a group of distinct rules. In some of these codes, the regulations on contractual matters contain texts of referral to the rules of delictual liability. In others, the rules of delictual liability are parallel to those of contractual liability.

The unity between the two forms of liability finds its expression, on the one hand, in the closeness of the rules that govern them,³ such as, for example, the extension of the presumption of guilt to both forms of liability, and, on the other hand, in the adoption of common texts (or, respectively, texts of referral). Thus, we find texts of referral, which express the unity of the two forms of liability, in Article 318 of the Hungarian Civil Code, which stipulates that the provisions on delictual liability are also applicable to contractual liability, both as regards the conditions of liability and as regards the extent of the damages. Article 93 of the GDR Civil Code is to a similar effect.

The Polish Civil Code and the RSFSR Civil Code preserve the traditional solution of separate and parallel regulation.

Delictual liability is established as a source of obligations, while contractual liability is regulated in the chapter on the execution of obligations and the consequences of not executing them. Because of the common traits between the two types of liability, there are a number of common rules, such as those on the manner of establishing the damages, the influence of the victim's guilt and so on.⁴ In the Polish Civil Code, the correlation between the two types of liability is also established by Article 441, which allows expressly the creditor's choice between the contractual and delictual basis of liability in the hypothesis in which the violation of contractual obligations also comprises the traits of a civil wrong.

The civil codes contain general rules of liability that are applied for any kind of damages caused by unlawful acts, as well as special rules: special rules depending on the subjects of the relation of obligation, such as the case of the commission of unlawful acts by minor children or by agents; special rules depending on the protected object, such as the rules on reparation of damages caused by injury [line missing in original] causing the damage, such as those on liability for damages caused by things.

11.1. The rule of liability for guilt. In all the civil codes subjected to analysis, delictual liability is conceived as liability for guilt. Objective liability, without guilt, is allowed only under exceptional circumstances, expressly provided by law. The majority of these codes also establish a legal presumption of guilt in the matter of delictual liability: Article 375 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 444 of the RSFSR Civil Code, Article 420 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 333 of the GDR Civil Code. The presumption is relative and can be overturned by proof to the contrary. The criterion for judgment of guilt is an objective

criterion, that of the conduct of a diligent person. We find an express establishment of the objective criterion in Article 339 of the Hungarian Civil Code, which stipulates that the perpetrator can be exonerated from liability if he proves that "he acted as was expected under the given conditions."

In general, delictual liability is involved for any kind of guilt, regardless of its seriousness. In legal literature, it is proposed that, in judging the perpetrator's guilt, a distinction be made between guilt and error. There is guilt insofar as the perpetrator can choose his conduct. Guilt is conduct that a diligent person would not have, while error is an unfortunate reaction that also could have been the act of a diligent person. In this regard, there is cited the fact that a driver makes one-two errors in each 3-4 km and any physician makes errors of diagnosis. Liability for errors is not justified morally and it cannot prevent citizens from making errors.⁵ The wording used in the Hungarian Civil Code—"as was expected under the given conditions"—permits the taking into consideration of circumstances that make error inevitable.

One's attention is arrested by the fact that the criterion for judgment of guilt differs in the case of physical persons and in that of socialist organizations. Thus, for physical persons, the GDR Civil Code, Article 333, establishes the criterion of "the general requirements," which also implies the observance of the general requirements for exercising certain professions or activities.⁶ For socialist organizations, exoneration from liability can occur in conformity with the provisions of Article 334, only if the damage could not have been eliminated although the enterprise used all the possibilities created by socialist production relations.

The problem of discretion is also connected with the rule of liability for guilt. In the traditional solution, persons lacking in discretion were exonerated from liability. More recently, one notes a tendency to obligate persons lacking in discretion to repair the damages.⁷

The RSFSR Civil Code and the Czechoslovak Civil Code adopt the traditional solution of exonerating from liability persons lacking in discretion. For protecting the victim's interests, the liability of those who have persons lacking in discretion under their supervision is instituted.

The other codes establish the liability of persons lacking in discretion, but as subsidiary liability, which can arise only in the presence of certain conditions. Thus, according to Article 352 of the Hungarian Civil Code, persons lacking in discretion are liable subsidiarily, where there are no other persons who would be liable, depending on the circumstances of the case and on the financial situation of the parties. Article 428 of the Polish Civil Code and Article 350 of the GDR Civil Code are also to the same effect. The authors feel that it is not a question of a form of liability but of a right to a suit for damages on the basis of the general principles of socialist cohabitation, although the conditions of liability are not met.⁸

II. 2. Material harm and mental harm. In some systems of law, the obligation to repair the damages resulting from the commission of unlawful acts refers only to material damages. In other systems, mental damages are also subject to reparation, on the same plane as material damages. Finally, there are systems of law in which the reparation of mental damages is allowed only in certain cases and in the presence of certain conditions.

Although suffering cannot be evaluated in money, the systems of law that allow the reparation of mental damages start from the idea that monetary compensation is an imperfect manner of reparation of mental damage, but it is the only possible one and thus better than no reparation.

In legal literature, there is talk about the existence of damages that are on the borderline between material damages and mental damages, such as the loss of prospects of advancement, the hindering of the choice of profession and so on. They have both patrimonial aspects and nonpatrimonial aspects. They cannot be evaluated precisely and have to be established by judgment.

In general, the systems of bourgeois law establish or allow the obligation to repair mental damages. Among the socialist civil codes, the RSFSR Civil Code, Article 444, allows only the reparation of material damages.¹⁰

The GDR Civil Code, too, establishes expressly, by means of Article 336, only the obligation to repair material damages, but the text adds in Paragraph 1 that in cases of injury to health the damage caused by the hindering of participation in social life also enters into the calculation of the damages. It is also characteristic of these damages that the victim does not have to justify how he uses these sums. In legal literature, it is felt that the damages for the hindering of participation in social life are not mental damages (Schmerzensgeld) but put at the victim's disposal additional material resources for finding himself elements of compensation in the content of life.¹¹ At any rate, these damages, which are in fact on the borderline between material damages and mental damages, attenuate the rigid character of the rule of reparation only of material damages.

The reparation of mental damages is expressly established in the cases provided by law in the system of the Polish Civil Code, the Czechoslovak Civil Code and the Hungarian Civil Code, as a result of amendment in 1978. Article 145 of the Polish Civil Code establishes the awarding of a sum of money as monetary satisfaction in the case of injury to health, detriment caused to liberty, and seduction of a female by deception or by force. They are conceived as damages meant to repair mental harm, procuring for the victim the necessary resources for ameliorating or forgetting the suffering.¹²

The Czechoslovak Civil Code establishes, by means of Article 444, the possibility of the repair of nonmaterial damage only in the case of injury to health. In legal literature, it is felt that it has the character of a measure meant to give satisfaction to the victim (Genugtuungsaktion).¹³

The Hungarian Civil Code allowed only the reparation of material damages. Through the amendments made in the Civil Code in 1978, there was introduced into Article 354 a provision that establishes the reparation of nonpatrimonial damages, when, as a result of the unlawful act, the victim is prevented from participating in social life or his life is made harder.

Studying the provisions of the socialist civil codes that allow the reparation of mental damages, we observe that: a) the reparation of mental damages is allowed, not as a general rule, but in a limited manner, for the cases and under the conditions provided by law; b) only some of these provisions refer to mental damages proper and others refer, in reality, to damages that are concretized in disturbances in the victim's living conditions, ultimately, in material damages that are not susceptible of precise evaluation; c) only the victim has the right to mental damages. Damages cannot be awarded for suffering caused by the mutilation or death of a close person.

From the causing of material damage through the commission of an unlawful act there always results the obligation to repair it. Regarding the criteria for evaluation of material damages, there are, in principle, two systems: the establishment of the damages depending on the extent of the harm, in conformity with the rule of full reparation, and the system of establishing them depending on guilt. Each of these two systems has a wider or narrower sphere of exceptions.

Among the civil codes subjected to comparative research, the rule of full reparation of damage is established in Article 358 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 457 of the RSFSR Civil Code, Article 415 of the Polish Civil Code and articles 336-337 of the GDR Civil Code. Only the Czechoslovak Civil Code also adopts as a general criterion, besides the extent of the harm, the criterion of the seriousness of the perpetrator's guilt. Thus, according to Article 442, only the actual damage is subject to reparation. In the case of deliberately committed acts, the court must also take into account other harm, such as unrealized earnings.

The establishment of the judge's right, by way of exception, by departure from the rule of full reparation of damage, to reduce the amount of the damages is characteristic of the socialist civil codes. We mention that it is not a question of the situation in which the harm cannot be established precisely and the court has freedom of judgment but of the situation in which the extent of the harm is known and the court has the right to reduce the amount of the damages.

Jus moderandi is established only in the favor of physical persons. Jus moderandi is established either through a general formula "depending on the circumstances of the case" or with the indication of the circumstances that the judge must take into consideration, such as the financial situation of the perpetrator or of both parties, the guilt and so on.

A wide formulation--"under special circumstances"--is used in Article 339 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 458 of the RSFSR Civil Code and Article 340 of the GDR Civil Code, which permit the reduction of the damages depending on the perpetrator's financial situation, and Article 450 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 440 of the Polish Civil Code allow this depending on the financial situation of both parties.

In legal literature, the solution that permits the judge to reduce the amount of the damages depending on the circumstances of the case is viewed favorably.¹⁴

II. 3. The sharing of liability in the case of joint guilt. In the civil codes studied, express rules have been adopted with regard to the sharing of liability, that is, the reduction of the damages owed by the perpetrator in the case of the victim's joint guilt.

The rule of the sharing of liability is established in Article 340 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 441 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 341 of the GDR Civil Code. The RSFSR Civil Code makes some distinctions depending on the degree of the victim's guilt. Thus, Article 458 of the RSFSR Civil Code, as amended in 1974, stipulates that, in the situation in which the victim's serious imprudence helped to cause or increase the harm, the amount of the damages has to be reduced, if it is not provided otherwise, depending on the victim's guilt (and, in the case of the perpetrator's guilt, also depending on the degree of his guilt), or the victim's claims have to be rejected. From this text it follows that the victim's slight negligence is not taken into consideration. The victim's intent eliminates the perpetrator's liability, and serious imprudence can lead, as the case may be, either to the sharing of liability, that is, to the reduction of the damages owed by the perpetrator depending on the seriousness of the guilt of both parties, or to the elimination of liability, in the case in which the victim's guilt is extremely serious.¹⁵

One's attention is arrested by the fact that, although all the above-mentioned codes contain rules in the sense of taking into consideration the victim's guilt in establishing the damages caused by the perpetrator, the name of this institution differs. Thus, it is regulated in the Soviet Civil Code under the name of "the taking of the victim's guilt into consideration" and in the GDR Civil Code under the name of the victim's participation in liability.

We mention that the sharing of liability occurs both in the situation in which the victim helped to cause the harm and in the situation in which the victim's guilt consists of not taking steps to eliminate or reduce the harm.

II. 4. The joint or conjunct liability of accomplices. The above-mentioned civil codes establish different solutions for the hypothesis of the plurality of perpetrators. Thus, some codes adopt expressly the rule of

joint liability, either as a single applicable rule or as a rule from which exceptions are allowed.

The Polish Civil Code establishes the rule of the joint liability of accomplices, as well as the right of recourse of the one who indemnified the victim against the other codebtors (Article 441).

The rule of the joint liability "of the persons who caused the harm together" is established in the same sense in Article 445 of the RSFSR Civil Code. In legal literature, there are discussions about the applicable criterion for establishing the circumstance that the harmful act was committed "together." Some authors feel that the liability is joint only for those whose acts represent the cause of the harm, and the persons who created the conditions for the commission of the harmful act are liable only *pro parte*.¹⁶

It is felt that the principle of joint liability does not apply to parents in the case of the production of harm by many minor children, since such a person, that is, a parent, would thus be held liable for the acts of another's child.¹⁷

The Hungarian Civil Code adopts the rule of joint liability depending on the participation in causing the harm or if this participation cannot be established equally (Article 344). By way of exception, the involvement of the liability of the accomplices in relation to the victim depending on their participation in the harm is allowed in two cases: if there is not the danger that the damage would remain unrepaired or when the victim participated in causing the harm.

The GDR Civil Code, too, establishes the rule of joint liability with the possibility that, under exceptional circumstances, the accomplices may be obligated only *pro parte* (Article 342). It follows that the possibility of departure from the rule of joint liability is at the court's discretion. Thus, the courts can proceed to obligate one of the accomplices only *pro parte* when his participation in causing the harm is slight.¹⁸

A different solution is adopted by the Czechoslovak Civil Code, which establishes the rule of conjunct liability, with the court's possibility of obligating the accomplices, jointly, to repair the damage caused (Article 438).

III. 1. Liability for harm caused by persons under supervision. The socialist civil codes contain special provisions on the liability of parents or other persons for unlawful acts of minor children, based on a legal presumption of guilt.¹⁹ These special provisions also refer to the liability of persons or institutions that have under supervision persons lacking in discretion (other than minors).

The liability of parents with that of minor children who have committed acts can be alternative or concurrent. In Article 427 of the Polish Civil

Code and Article 450 of the RSFSR Civil Code, the liability of parents (or other persons) and of minor children is alternative. Parents (or other persons) are liable only in the case of unlawful acts committed by minor children lacking in discretion. In the system of the RSFSR Civil Code, for minors between 15-18 years, parents are liable only subsidiarily, if the minor does not have assets or earnings from work.

In the system adopted by Article 352 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 422 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 351 of the GDR Civil Code, parents are liable jointly with minor children with discretion who have worked and instead of minor children without discretion who have worked. The age limit up to which the presumption of a lack of discretion operates differs: 6 years in the GDR, 12 years in Hungary, 13 years in Poland and 15 years in the USSR. One notes, in general, a tendency to reduce the age of minors for whom parents are held liable, brought about by the greater independence of the younger generation under the economic and social conditions of modern life.²⁰

The same text that establishes the liability of parents for unlawful acts of minor children also establishes under the same conditions the indirect liability of persons who have under supervision mental incompetents lacking in discretion.

The circle of persons with regard to whom the presumption of guilt operates and the system for determining them differ in the regulations adopted by the socialist civil codes. One's attention is arrested by the fact that, in all the codes studied, the presumption of guilt for harm caused by minors is not limited to parents but it also extends to other persons obligated to supervise the minor. As in the French Civil Code of 1804 (and in the systems of law patterned after it), teachers and artisans are not listed among them.²¹

The RSFSR Civil Code establishes the liability of parents and guardians, with the specification that, if the minor is under the supervision of an educational or medical institution, the liability devolves upon them (Article 450). We observe that, in the system of the RSFSR Civil Code, there no longer is liability of the teacher as a physical person but of the educational institution. For persons lacking in discretion the guardian or the socialist organization that has the obligation to supervise them is liable.

In Article 427 of the Polish Civil Code, Article 352 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 422 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 351 of the GDR Civil Code we find a broad formulation, which includes all persons who have the legal or conventional obligation of supervision or who actually exercise supervision of the minor or a person lacking in discretion. The presumption of guilt has a relative character. It is based, for all the persons involved, on the obligation to supervise the minor, or, respectively, the persons lacking in discretion, and, for the parents, also on the obligation to give a suitable education to minors. Consequently, the liability

of parents can be involved cumulatively with that of other persons who have the obligation to supervise the minor on two different legal bases: that of the parent for the lack of education and that of other persons for the lack of supervision.²²

III. 2. The liability of principals for harm caused by agents. The regulations on the liability of principals for unlawful acts of their agents are also special regulations depending on the subjects of liability. Studying the provisions of the above-mentioned civil codes, we observe that they adopt two different systems: a) the liability of the principal or, respectively, of the enterprise is considered direct liability; b) the principal's liability is considered indirect liability, along with which the agent's liability can also be involved.

Article 348 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 446 of the RSFSR Civil Code, Article 421 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 331 of the GDR Civil Code regulate as direct liability the liability of the socialist organizations as principals. In legal literature, this system is substantiated by the specific character of socialist production relations.²³ The activity of the working people in state and cooperative enterprises is considered the very activity of the enterprise. Each person acts not as a private individual but as a member of the staff. If he commits an unlawful act, it constitutes the socialist organization's act. A distinction is no longer made between the liability for the organ's acts and the liability for the agent's acts. The conduct of any working person in an enterprise or of any member of the cooperative is imputed to the staff. The victim can bring the suit for damages only against the socialist organization. The perpetrator's responsibility to the staff, to the cooperative or state socialist organization, is an internal matter. The enterprise's suit for recourse against the perpetrator of the unlawful act is governed by the rules of labor law, with the liability being, among other things, limited. It is stated that the advantage of such a system consists of the elimination of the difference between the liability of the employee as the unlawful act harmed the enterprise where he works or a third party.²⁴ We believe that to this advantage it is also possible to add that of the unity of the competent body of jurisdiction in the hypothesis in which the harm was caused to a socialist organization.

By way of exception to the rule according to which only the socialist organization is liable, the Hungarian Civil Code stipulates that the agent is liable jointly with the principal in the case of deliberate infractions, as well as when the principal is a physical person and the damage cannot be recovered from him.

Article 430 of the Polish Civil Code adopts the traditional solution of the French Civil Code, in whose system the principal's liability for the agent's acts is conceived as indirect liability. The liability of artificial persons for the acts of organs is established distinctly as a form of direct liability (Article 416).

One special condition common to the principal's liability for the agent's acts, regardless of whether it is conceived as direct or indirect liability, is that the act must be committed in the exercise of the activity entrusted by the principal. This condition is contained in similar formulations: "in the execution of official duties" (Article 445 of the RSFSR Civil Code), "in the execution of activity" (Article 430 of the Polish Civil Code), "in the performance of official duties or acting within the limits of his jurisdiction" (Article 348 of the Hungarian Civil Code), "in the fulfillment of official tasks" (Article 331 of the GDR Civil Code) and "within the framework of fulfilling the tasks" (Article 441 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code). In the practice of the application of this condition, there is a restrictive interpretation, which considers possible the involvement of the principal's liability only in the case of the commission of the act during the execution of official duties, in particular, in Poland and the USSR, and an extensive interpretation, which considers that the principal's liability can also be involved in the situation in which the agent's harmful act has a connection with his official duties, as in Hungary, Czechoslovakia and the GDR.²⁵

The state's liability for illegal administrative acts can be conceived as an institution of public law or as an institution of civil law, subject to the general rules of delictual civil liability or to special rules.

In the law of the GDR, the state's liability for illegal administrative acts is regulated, by a special law of 1967, as an institution of administrative law.

The other codes studied contain special provisions (Article 349 of the Hungarian Civil Code, articles 446-447 of the RSFSR Civil Code, articles 417-420 of the Polish Civil Code and Article 426 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code) that establish the state's liability for illegal administrative acts as a variant of civil liability.

The Czechoslovak Civil Code establishes only the principle of the liability of state bodies for harm caused by illegal decisions under the conditions provided by special laws.

In the system of the RSFSR Civil Code, liability for unlawful acts committed in the sphere of state administration is involved under the conditions of the common law of delictual civil liability. The administrative act's unlawful character has to be established during the suit for the reparation of damages.

In order to avoid groundless suits, in the system of the Polish Civil Code, the decision's unlawful character and, in the system of the Hungarian Civil Code, the functionary's guilt have to result from a criminal judgment or, respectively, from a judgment of a disciplinary body or the higher body.

In the system of the Polish Civil Code and the Hungarian Civil Code, the provisions on liability for unlawful acts committed in the field of state

administration are also applicable to harm caused within the framework of the activity performed by organs of the magistracy and by courts.

In the RSFSR Civil Code, for harm caused by unlawful acts by persons who work in organs of criminal prosecution, the magistracy and the courts, liability can be involved only in the special cases provided by law.

III. 3. Reparation of damages in the case of injury to health or the death of the victim. One characteristic common to all the socialist civil codes is the establishment of special rules, depending on the protected object, for the case of injury to health and the death of the victim.

In the earlier regulations, in the absence of special provisions, there was formed, in legal practice, a system of solutions regarding the criteria for establishing the damages, the circle of persons entitled to reparation and the method of reparation, which are reflected in the provisions of the civil codes.

Thus, for the case of injury to health, the damages subject to reparation include the expenses for care and the unrealized income (Article 459 of the RSFSR Civil Code, articles 336 and 337 of the amended Hungarian Civil Code--such special provisions did not exist prior to amendment--articles 446 and 447 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 338 of the GDR Civil Code). The Polish Civil Code specifies that the expenses needed for learning a new profession must be included in the damages.

All the civil codes subjected to analysis establish the existence of a right to the reparation of damage caused by the provider's death. They establish the categories of persons and the conditions in which they have the right to the reparation of damage caused by the death of the victim in whose support they are found. The Hungarian Civil Code establishes a right to the reparation of damage only for persons who have a right to support.

Article 460 of the RSFSR Civil Code and Article 448 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code stipulate that persons who are actually in the victim's support or who have a right to support have a right to the reparation of damage. The RSFSR Civil Code specifies that only persons unable to work can claim the reparation of damage.

Article 446 of the Polish Civil Code establishes the right to the reparation of damage caused by the victim's death in the favor of the persons who have a right to support and of other relatives actually found in the victim's support, but only if from the circumstances of the case it follows that the rules of socialist cohabitation impose the payment of an annuity.

The GDR Civil Code establishes the right to the reparation of damage for persons who have a right to support in conformity with the provisions of family law. Other persons actually found in the victim's support have a right to the reparation of damage only if they do not have their own incomes. Their right is limited in time to a maximum of 2 years.

Regarding the method of reparation, the damages can be awarded in the form of a lump sum or in the form of a periodic payment. Some systems of law permit only one of the forms or the other. Others permit the alternative or simultaneous use of both forms.²⁶

The rule of the awarding of damages in the form of periodic payments is characteristic of socialist law. This rule is established in all the codes studied: in Article 357 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 447 of the Polish Civil Code, Article 357 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code, Article 468 of the RSFSR Civil Code and Article 338 of the GDR Civil Code. The Polish Civil Code establishes the possibility that, in thoroughly justified cases, such as, for example, the necessity of learning new professions, the court may establish the damages in the form of a lump sum. In the GDR Civil Code, the parties can agree in writing to the reparation of damage by means of the payment of a lump sum.

The solution according to which, in thoroughly justified cases, by way of exception to the rule of awarding monthly sums, the perpetrator can be obligated to pay a lump sum seems to us to be the wisest solution.

III. 4. Liability for things. Depending on the manner in which the damage is caused, the socialist civil codes contain special provisions on the harm caused by things.

The liability for things can be conceived as a form of general liability, to which the general conditions of delictual civil liability apply, or as a distinct form of liability. From the viewpoint of its sphere of application, it can be regulated as a general liability for things or as a special liability for certain things. In its turn, general liability can have a wider or narrower sphere, for all things or only for dangerous ones.

As for historical evolution, in the system of the French Civil Code and the codes patterned after it, the liability for things was able to be involved only in the presence of the general conditions of liability, with the exception of special cases in which, for certain expressly stipulated things, such as animals or the wreckage of a building, the presumption of guilt operated. Along with the development of modern technology and the dangers that its use creates, which also imply an increase in the difficulties in the proving of guilt, toward the end of the 19th century and the start of the 20th century, the legal institution of the general liability for things appeared. Initially a creation of jurisprudence, the liability for things was then also established through the adoption of legislative provisions.²⁷

The socialist civil codes subjected to analysis establish expressly the general liability for things, namely in the form of general liability for dangerous things: Article 349 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 454 of the RSFSR Civil Code, Article 428 of the Czechoslovak Civil Code and Article 344 of the GDR Civil Code. The formulations used to delimit the sphere

of this liability differ. In the Hungarian Civil Code, there is talk about the liability of persons who perform an activity connected with sources of increased danger, without other specifications. The Polish Civil Code provides the liability of enterprises that use in their activity forces of nature like steam, gas, electricity, liquid fuel and so on and the liability of physical persons who use mechanical means of displacement. The RSFSR Civil Code refers to the liability of enterprises whose activity is connected with increased dangers, such as industrial enterprises, construction, automobile owners and so on. The forms of manifestation of the sources of increased danger are varied and their enumeration in texts is exemplificative. The GDR Civil Code also contains, besides the general rule of liability for sources of increased danger, special rules for certain sources of danger.

Some differences in the regulations adopted by the civil codes studied also reflect differences with regard to the basis of the liability for things. Thus, in the Polish Civil Code, which establishes the liability for things in two groups of cases (Article 435 and Article 436), the liability is based on the danger created for the surrounding world by the enterprise or the person that uses the source of increased danger. A causal connection between the enterprise's functional activity and the damage is required, in contrast to Soviet law, where the causal connection has to be made with a source of increased danger.²⁸

In the same regard, in the Czechoslovak Civil Code, it is felt that liability without guilt for harm caused by extremely dangerous things is the consequence of using such things.²⁹

The liability for sources of increased danger is considered objective liability, that is, increased liability, which has the function of fostering care in the use of sources of increased danger.³⁰ Some authors feel that in fact it is not a question of liability but of an obligation to repair the damage.³¹

For harm caused by other things (other than dangerous ones), liability can be involved only for guilt, with the specification that, in four of these codes, delictual liability is based on the presumption of guilt, so that the difficulty in the proving of guilt is implicitly eliminated.

In some of these codes, namely Article 353 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 431 of the Polish Civil Code and Article 346 of the German Civil Code, the liability for animals is established through special provisions. It is conceived as liability for guilt in the Hungarian Civil Code and the Polish Civil Code and as increased liability in the GDR Civil Code. In the system of the Polish Civil Code, there is the possibility of the obligation to partial or full reparation of damage even in the absence of guilt, if from the circumstances of the case it follows that the principles of socialist cohabitation impose the reparation of damages. The Hungarian Civil Code makes a distinction between domestic animals and wild animals,

stipulating that persons who use wild animals are liable under the same conditions as those whose activity is connected with sources of increased danger.

In some of these codes, we also find special provisions for harm caused by the wreckage of a building: Article 354 of the Hungarian Civil Code, Article 434 of the Polish Civil Code and Article 347 of the GDR Civil Code. The Hungarian Civil Code and the Polish Civil Code also establish the liability for harm caused by objects fallen, thrown or dropped from buildings.

In conclusion, analyzing the provisions on delictual liability in the socialist civil codes, we observe that they have established legislatively a number of legal institutions springing from the practical needs of modern life. In comparison with the earlier regulations, they contain a more detailed treatment of delictual liability. On the other hand, they reflect the specific character of socialist production relations, within the framework of which the role of civil liability in preventing harm and in fostering careful conduct in work and everyday life acquires a special importance. In the present study we dwelled on those that seemed more significant to us.

FOOTNOTES

1. See: G. Marty, P. Raynaud, "Droit Civil," T II, Vol 1, Paris, 1962, pp 323-512; H. L. Mazeaud, A. Tunc, "Traite Theorique et Pratique de la Responsabilite Civile," Paris, 1960; O. S. Ioffe, "Raspunderea in Dreptul Civil Sovietic" [Liability in Soviet Civil Law], Stiintifica Publishing House, Bucharest, 1956; G. H. Matveev, "Osnovania Grajdanskoprovovoi Etvetsvennosti," Moscow, 1970; I. M. Anghel, Fr. Deak, M. F. Popa, "Raspunderea Civila" [Civil Liability], Stiintifica Publishing House, Bucharest, 1970.
2. See: A. Kanda, "La Nouvelle Reglementation de la Responsabilite en Droit Tschecoslovaque," REVUE INTERNATIONALE DE DROIT COMPARE, No 4, 1965, p 896.
3. See: G. Eorsy, "Die Zivilrechtliche Verantwortlichkeit im Ungarischen Zivilgesetzbuch," in "Das Ungarische Zivilgesetzbuch in Fünf Studien," Budapest, 1963, pp 287 et seqq.
4. See: W. Czahorski, "Problemes Fondamentales de la Responsabilite Civile, Droit Civil Polonais, Problemes Choisis," Academie Polonaise des Sciences, 1975, p 138.
5. See: A. Tunc, "Introduction," in "International Encyclopaedia of Comparative Law," Tubingen, Vol XI, Ch 1, p 78.

6. See: M. Posch, "Die Zivilrechtliche Verantwortlichkeit für Schadenszufügung und Ihre Voraussetzungen," *NEUE JUSTIZ*, No 1, 1977, p 14.
7. The German Civil Code of 1900 allows the so-called "equitable liability" (*Billigkeitshaftung*) of persons lacking in discretion, in the presence of certain conditions, namely the damages cannot be claimed from a third party and, regarding the financial situation of the parties, equity imposes the solution of repairing the damage.

In France, a law of 1968 overturned the traditional principle of the lack of liability of the mental incompetent, establishing the civil liability of all the persons, even if they committed the act under the influence of a mental disorder.

8. See: S. Szer, "Über das Neue Zivilgesetzbuch der Volksrepublik Polen," *STAAT UND RECHT*, No 12, 1964, p 21; J. Wasilewski, "La Methode de l'Elaboration et les Principes du Code Civile," *DROIT POLONAIS CONTEMPORAIN*, No 4, 1965, p 15.
9. In French law, in the absence of an express text, the provisions of Article 1,382 of the French Civil Code, which establishes the obligation to repair the damages, were interpreted in the sense that they refer both to material damages and to mental damages (see: H. L. Mazeaud, A. Tunc, *op. cit.*, Vol 1, p 385; G. Marty, P. Raynaud, *op. cit.*, Vol II, p 362).

In German law, the Civil Code of 1900 enumerates the cases in which the obligation to repair mental damages exists. The authors point out legal practice's tendency to widen the possibility of awarding mental damages (see: K. Larenz, "Lehrbuch des Schuldrechts," Munich, 1976, 10th Ed, Vol 1, p 379).

In English law, the courts include in the category of mental damages the physical and mental suffering of the injured persons, the loss of pastimes, the prospect of the shortening of life. Compensation for the mental suffering of the victim's relatives is not allowed (see: R. E. V. Houston, "Solmond and the Law of Torts," London, 1973, p 590).

10. The RSFSR Civil Code takes the solution of the Civil Code of 1922, which was, moreover, the traditional solution of civil law prior to the revolution (also see: E. A. Fleisht, "Nauciosprakticheski Kommentarii WGR," Moscow, 1966, p 518). We mention that, in Soviet literature, too, the opinion of the necessity of allowing the reparation of mental damages has been expressed. For details, see: M. I. Siminova, "Imuschestvennaia Otvetsvennosti za Moralnoi Vred," *SOVIETSKOE GOSUDARSTVO I PRAVO*, No 1, 1970, pp 118 et seqq.

11. See: M. Posch, "Schutz von Schadenszufugung, Grundriss Zivilrecht," Vol 8, Berlin, 1977, p 65.
12. See: A. Spuznar, "La Responsabilite Dans le Projet du Nouveau Code Polonais," REVUE INTERNATIONALE DE DROIT COMPARÉ, No 1, 1963, p 25; idem, "L'Indemnisation des Victimes de Route en Droit Polonais," REVUE INTERNATIONALE DE DROIT COMPARÉ, No 1, 1976, p 71.
13. See: I. Klapac, "Die Verantwortlichkeitsansprüche mit Genugtuungscharakter in Tschechoslowakischen Sozialistischen Zivilrecht," STAAT UND RECHT, No 11, 1977, pp 1,172 et seqq.
14. See: H. Stoll, "Consequences of Liability, Remedies," in "International Encyclopaedia of Comparative Law," Tübingen, Vol XI, Ch 8, p 147.
15. E. A. Fleisig, op. cit., p 529.
16. See: S. F. Dontov, "Solidarnost i Dolevaia Otvetvennost' v Oblazatelstvakh iz Prichinenia Vreda," SOVETSKOE GOSUDARSTVO I PRAVO, No 5, 1977, pp 123 et seqq.
17. See: Staff, "Grazhdanskoe Pravo," Moscow, 1970, Vol II, p 421.
18. See: M. Posch, op. cit., p 60.
19. There are systems of law that do not adopt special regulations on this matter. Thus, in the common law countries, persons who have minors under supervision are liable only on the basis of proved guilt in the exercise of supervision.
20. See: J. P. Le Gall, "Liability for Persons Under Supervision," in "International Encyclopaedia of Comparative Law," Tübingen, Vol XI, Ch 3, p 29.
21. We mention that in France, in 1937, the civil code's provisions on the teacher's liability were amended, the presumption of his guilt being eliminated. Teachers are liable under the conditions of common law, that is, only for proved guilt. The solution was imposed as a result of the criticism raised in the sense that, under the conditions of public education in which the teacher does not choose his pupils, it is unjust to burden him with a presumption of guilt, which does not affect other categories of civil servants. The liability of teachers was replaced with the state's liability. Regarding the liability of artisans for the acts of apprentices, it is becoming less and less applicable in practice.
22. See: O. S. Ioffe et al, "Sovetskoe Grazhdanskoe Pravo," 1971, p 376; M. Posch, op. cit., p 87.

23. See: M. Posch, op. cit., p 49; G. Matveev, op. cit., p 230.
24. See: G. Eoray, op. cit., p 297.
25. See: G. Eoray, "Private and Governmental Liability for the Torts of Employees and Organs," in "International Encyclopaedia of Comparative Law," Tubingen, Vol XI, Ch 4, p 78.
26. In the practice of the bourgeois courts, the solution of awarding a lump sum is the most frequent one. There is raised in favor of this solution the argument that it resolves the litigation for good and saves the victim the trouble of chasing after the periodic payments. For the hypothesis of the alteration of the extent of the harm, the possibility of revision is proposed (see: M. Gregor, "Personal Injury and Death," in "Encyclopaedia of Comparative Law," Tubingen, Vol XI, Ch IX, p 25).
27. In France (and the countries that adopted codes like the French code), through the interpretation of Article 1,389 of the Civil Code, it was felt that there is a general liability for any sort of things. In the same regard, the solution of the objective liability (strict liability) for anything on a person's land and out of control, such as water, gas, noxious smoke, vibrations and so on, appeared in the practice of the English courts (see: A. Roger, "Winfield and Jalowicz on Tort," London, pp 360-362). In Germany, there are texts in the Civil Code of 1900 that establish objective liability (Gefahrderungshaftung), and many special provisions that widen the liability for things--railroads, highways, aircraft, power stations, radioactive substances--have appeared (see: K. Larenz, op. cit., p 534).
28. See: W. Czahorski, op. cit., pp 157-158.
29. See: N. Ghimpa, T. Munteanu, "Contributions to a Future Regulation of Liability for Harm Caused by Things," REVISTA ROMANA DE DREPT, No 9, 1967, p 113.
30. See: Staff, "Sovetskoe Grajdanskoe Pravo," Moscow, 1969, T 11, p 339; M. Posch, op. cit., p 68.
31. See: G. K. Matveev, op. cit., p 7; F. Espig, "Probleme Zivilrechtlicher Verantwortlichkeit," STAAT UND RECHT, No 3, 1979, p 228.

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SUSPENSION OF SELF-MANAGEMENT PROCEDURES ON UPSWING

Belgrade NEDELJNE INFORMATIVNE NOVINE in Serbo-Croatian No 1551, 21 Sep 80
pp 12-13

[Article by Stevan Niksic: "Who Is the Government Working For?"]

[Text] On the initiative of the second program of Radio Belgrade and NIN a discussion was organized in the Central Council of the Federation of Yugoslav Trade Unions with Miran Potrc, chairman of the trade unions council, and Dr Najdan Pasic, professor and president of the Constitutional Court of Serbia. The decision to suspend self-management in one OOUR [basic organization of associated labor] of Sloboda in Cacak provided the occasion for the discussion.

Letter to BORBA From Workers in Sloboda

Six years ago, in 1974, the work organization of that time, which was called Sloboda, showed losses of 17 billion dinars. The then director of the organization hastily convened the workers' council and said that the organization was showing neither a profit nor a loss, and he then immediately resigned a few days later, received a gift and left the work organization forever. Immediately after his departure it was learned that the situation had been falsely portrayed and that we had a large loss, which for us workers was like a bolt from the blue, something we could not believe because we had at that time been showing the best results. Since then and up until this day we have been in a very difficult financial situation. We can freely say that we are without self-management, nor can we call ourselves self-managers, since we haven't felt what our constitution guarantees and grants us.... The facts state that human relations have been very troubled in this OOUR and that this has had an effect on the production process and thereby on personal incomes, precisely because in those years we have had four directors, just as many deputy directors, administrators and supervisors. These same people have promised this OOUR a sound and glittering existence, while they held on to their high positions and the personal incomes that go with them, and this OOUR has sunk into still

larger losses from one day to the next. A situation like this can be expected to result in worker dissatisfaction and even work stoppage by workers who have had very low personal incomes, from 260,000 to 350,000 old dinars, by contrast with their supervisors. We can conclude from all this that there has been no self-management, nor does it exist today in this OOUR....

[Discussion With Pasic and Potrc]

The letter to BORBA from three workers in the OOUR Garant of the Cacak work organization Sloboda has already served as a pretext for many varied comments. It was written because of a decision by the public defender of self-management law in that town, who, at the initiative of so-called social factors in the opstina and with the consent of the self-management bodies in the collective, ordered on 30 June of this year that temporary measures be instituted in the OOUR Garant. The temporary measures which the law foresees are aimed above all at protecting the self-management rights of the workers consisting of suspending self-management and of turning power over to a temporary professional management body, which was expected to "rescue the collective," as was stated in a conversation a few days ago.

The three workers who wrote to BORBA--Sreten Grujovic, Stojan Kaplarevic and Milorad Terzic--have in the meantime been pronounced rebels since they thought differently on this issue from their officially elected representatives and supervisors. A punishment probably awaits them for that reason: it has been proposed that they be transferred to other jobs in Sloboda "for lack of discipline and disorder."

By all appearances the Cacak "case" is not an isolated one. Similar decisions instituting interventionary measures to protect disrupted self-management relations in many collectives have become more frequent in recent months, at least according to the news carried by the press.

The Reason for the Temporary Measures

NIN and the second program of Radio Belgrade (which has already devoted two successive broadcasts of "Open Radio"--on Tuesday at 1300 hours--to the events in the OOUR Garant in Cacak) arranged a discussion on this topic in the Central Council of the Federation of Yugoslav Trade Unions with Miran Potrc, chairman of the Central Council, and Dr Najdan Pasic, professor at the School of Political Science in Belgrade and president of the Constitutional Court of Serbia. Pasic and Potrc first listened to a tape of a conversation with workers and supervisors of this work organization and with officials of Cacak Opstina. The topic of the discussion which was conducted thereafter went beyond the dimensions of that event, however.

Do you know the exact figures on the number of exceptional measures throughout the country? went the first question.

"Reading the newspapers I have myself noted that there are more of these reports than there were previously, and I therefore conclude that there are also more exceptional measures. However, there are no data whatsoever on this. But I am certain that it is a token number," said the trade union chairman.

In the present situation many organizations are in great difficulties because of disrupted economic relations. It is our impression that they are seeking a way out of these difficulties through such measures, that is, through a suspension of self-management. We called upon Potrc and Pasic to comment on this. Is it not dangerous if we continue to reinforce the notion that the government or the party or someone else outside of self-management can solve the problems more effectively? we asked.

"That is true," Potrc said. "At this point we must ensure that our self-management becomes stronger even in a quite difficult economic situation. Self-management must be confirmed even in quite difficult situations, when there is a need to reassess development and business policy, to analyze all mutual relations and the position of organizations on the market, to make the workers' real status evident.... It seems to me that we are in a transitional period. We have the constitution and the Law on Associated Labor, but we know that a goodly portion of the possibilities they envisage have not been realized. The reason is probably that as a society we are not able to achieve everything in 3 or 4 years. There are also efforts to keep that law from being implemented altogether."

Certain Old Errors

"Will we strengthen self-management in this period or will we give in to the demands to seek a way out other than through self-management? That is now a very, very serious question. Precisely for that reason it is good to talk about these specific and individual cases where intervention perhaps may be justified, but it is also worth talking about this and indicating the danger of this becoming general practice," Potrc said.

"The danger is all the greater in that such measures could yield results that appear to be good, isn't that right?"

"They might," Potrc said, "but not because the self-management rights have been taken away from the workers, but because entire teams make an authentic commitment at such times. It is also at this point that the workers become fed up, they know that there is no longer any possibility but to make a real effort to resolve the difficult situation."

A question for Professor Pasic: Self-management is most underdeveloped in government agencies. How can we believe, then, that they will effectively protect self-management through decisions to intervene?

"Self-management is certainly less developed in government agencies than in the self-management base, but at the same time we should not glorify the self-management base. Government agencies must for that reason have certain powers that are in the interest of the entire working class. Otherwise that would mean that we are quickly and easily removing the government from the scene just because self-management is less developed in government agencies. It is worth recalling, then, certain of our errors from previous periods, those, say, which had to do with what was referred to as the 15th amendment, which was adopted in 1968. I am not saying that these errors were dominant, but they were very much present.

"The worker, as Comrade Kardelj put it, must be organized politically and not just through self-management, and at times must also rely on his government agencies and act through political organizations. The worker must take advantage of the entire set of instruments of the delegate system. In a delegate assembly certain social problems can also be examined in a broader context. We cannot assume that consciousness of self-interest and the broader interest of society and of the need to align the one with the other will always be sufficiently developed in every organization of associated labor. I think it would not be good for us to regard as self-management only what happens in individual work collectives, and to suppose that what comes from the broader social community, as a decision of delegate assemblies or broader social forums, signifies in advance elements of technocracy and bureaucratic positions. There may be that as well, but it is very dangerous to have a black-and-white technique for framing conclusions in such situations.

"So, bearing in mind the occasion for this discussion of ours I would like to emphasize that temporary measures need not always be directed against the self-management rights of the workers."

How is one to interpret the fact that the number of interventionary measures by government agencies, especially in the economic sphere, has increased simultaneously with the deterioration of the economic situation in our society? Doesn't this contain a kind of latent distrust of self-management and of the system built on it?

The Old and the New

"Well, you know that even in the past it has been our judgment that the lag in development of self-management relations is one of the essential reasons for the worsened economic situation. I have already said that we still have not managed to institute associated labor in the true sense of the word... I think the worst thing is that we have allowed ourselves to be satisfied with certain external forms so as to assure ourselves that we have accomplished a great deal of this. We have been satisfied, say, when some self-management accord is signed, though often we have not gone into the sense of its content. These forms which pertain to self-management only in their title usually contain many of the old relationships.

"Today we can no longer resolve the problems in the economic structure, the problems of export and import, problems in excessive spending--through government intervention. First, because we refuse to do so. But even if we wanted, we no longer have an administration that would be capable of doing this, that would today be able, say, to do the kind of planning we had in 1950.

"I think that here we have touched on a key problem," Professor Pasic continued. "On the one hand the market is still uncontrolled and fragmented, while on the other we have a system of ad hoc measures of government intervention. Perhaps we have not had enough to say about that on this occasion, but it seems to me that neither the problem of Garant in Cacak, which is what we have been discussing, nor the problems of other organizations of associated labor which have fallen into difficulties can be resolved solely by changing the situation within the collective--by increasing work discipline or by any sort of better organizational measures."

What Is It That Nurtures This Love?

Potrc: We have been speaking about the excessively great influence of the government on the one hand and of underdeveloped self-management on the other. I think that in this situation, which I have referred to as a transition, it would be bad if we hesitated about what we are going to do.

Nor is it possible to place the entire society in an incubator for a time, a year say, so that we can wait for better times and continue to make advances with self-management. Self-managed associated labor must offer a way out even in the present difficult conditions, at least slowly, if only step by step.

Where does such great love and unlimited trust in the measures of the government and government intervention come from? What is it that nourishes this love in us?

Pasic: Because we have not found self-management solutions to many problems. From the theoretical standpoint our economists still owe us certain answers. We note, say, that the pace of integration and self-management linkage is unsatisfactory, that there are cases of self-enclosure within local, regional and republic limits. But have we made a precise and accurate analysis with which we would be able to ascertain all the causes which have led to this? I say that there are many, many obstacles even in the normative solutions that are now in effect. And then certain collectives are gathering the fruits of the momentary situation on the market, and understandably are very reluctant to enter into the processes of integration. They simply want to preserve their privileged position at all costs. That is why all the problems cannot be resolved by merely expanding the autonomy of collectives. We need an organized effort of the social community, whether it is called the state, the delegate system or anything else, but it is obviously indispensable.

We will not ensure that the state withers away and that self-management becomes broader solely by taking certain powers and functions away from the state. After all, later, in difficult situations, it is clear that we must rely even on them. And then we discover, too late unfortunately, that agencies which should intervene no longer have the powers or are no longer equipped to do it.

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SLOVENIAN SURVEY ON REASONS FOR CHANGING JOBS

Zagreb VJESNIK in Serbo-Croatian SEDAM DANA supplement 27 Sep 80 p 9

[Article by Boris Petrovic: "Why People Are Quitting"]

[Text] The decision to change one's workplace and perhaps even his type of work is rarely taken "overnight." It is difficult for the great majority / of people to leave their accustomed group of acquaintances, colleagues or friends and to set off into an unknown environment. Nevertheless, the statistics show that more and more workers are deciding on such a step and that very often the departure from the collective without the customary "I am sorry to be leaving."

In recent years sociologists in numerous economically advanced countries have been ever more seriously concerned with personnel turnover, and they take a simple calculation as their point of departure. According to certain estimates, in West Germany it cost the economy about 275,000 marks for one supervisor to go to another job, and a large loss occurs when even "ordinary workers" do this by moving from one job to another. In the period when the decision to leave has already been made, the worker or supervisor usually no longer makes an effort to do good work, and when he enters the other workplace, it takes him a certain time to become accustomed to the new working conditions, and his output is below what it ordinarily was.

On the average the search for a new, more attractive and if possible better paid job lasts about 6 months, and in that time, it is estimated, output in terms of work done not infrequently drops as much as 50 percent. An output cut in half is also normal during the first months of performing new work duties. It thus follows that a change in personnel means half the output in a job of what it would ordinarily be for almost an entire year. Yet the entire personal income is certainly paid!

The Critical Point

"No one has yet attempted to compute how much is lost by the Yugoslav economy because of personnel turnover, nor are there true indicators on how widespread this phenomenon is and on its causes," says Dr Janez Jerovsek,

senior staff scientist in the Ljubljana School of Sociology, Political Science and Journalism, the author of a survey which has aroused quite a bit of interest in Slovenia.

In short, too little is known about personnel turnover, and it is particularly disturbing that there is no computation of the "critical point," the percentage of turnover which in every industry would mark the threshold that cannot be crossed without quite serious losses. The same certainly applies to the percentage of absences from work. But while there is a lot of talk about sick leave and other reasons for the drop in productivity, usually nothing is said about turnover, which obviously causes large losses.

"It even makes some people feel rather embarrassed, and a number of Slovenian work organizations refuse to have the causes of turnover studied in their plants. This is probably because the questionnaire used in the survey included quite a few questions about human relations and the way they are resolved," reflected Dr. Janez Jerovsek, who feels that the move from one job to another has already taken on such dimensions that "if it continues this way, it could become a serious brake on economic development." The costs of turnover are lowest where work is done on the assembly line, and highest where workers are expected to show greater independence, creativity or a high degree of practice in performing very complicated work duties. Since only about 15 percent of the workers in Slovenia work on the assembly line, and personnel turnover is increasing, the Slovenian Economic Chamber has shown great interest in studying it."

Earnings in Only Third Place

"After the statistical processing of the percentage of responses to the various questions I concluded that people are usually driven to change jobs by dissatisfaction with the possibility of utilizing their knowledge and ability in their work. One respondent told me how his boss often left him without anything to do. This means that he really does not need me, this young specialist concluded, and he went off to another collective. Run-ins, tension and other conflicts are frequent in cases when the supervisor has less education than some of his coworkers. Among the reasons for quitting second place is confidently taken by various conflicts between supervisors themselves, between supervisors and workers or between "subordinates" and "superiors" in the same work unit. Conflicts among the workers themselves, as can be seen from the table, are considerably rarer and are not a reason for quitting," Dr. Jerovsek said.

The manner of remuneration comes only in third place, which was rather unexpected. However, it is not a question of the absolute level of personal incomes, but of excessive differences in remuneration of particular forms of work. According to statements by numerous workers engaged directly in production, the ratio between their earnings and the personal earnings of supervisors should not be greater than 1:3. Often it is also

dissatisfaction with the difference in the personal incomes of people employed in the same work unit.

By and large, on the basis of this survey, it turned out that little influence is had on better work and "loyalty" to some work organization by money alone, and the workers do not compare their own income so much with the directors as with that of their colleagues on the job. Among the 16 proposed reasons for fleeing the production shop of factories, the great majority of the respondents said that employment in nonproductive activities is easier and the personal incomes higher both in general and also in their own collective. They also say that a job outside the production department also offers faster promotion. It is interesting as well that they feel that responsibility is considerably less in administrative and economic jobs--or "mistakes made in the office are less obvious than mistakes made on a machine."

Connections and Influence

Though each of the tables requires quite a bit of comment, we will explain in conclusion only those which speak about job promotion and the method of resolving conflicts.

Though all of 43 percent of the respondents make charges against connections and influence, they did say that this would not help without education and some sort of achievement in work performance.

Resolving conflicts by declaring the "winner"--and very often it is the supervisor--has driven many from a collective where they have spent a number of years. But, as shown by the answers to the other questions, they did not for that reason lose confidence that they could win the struggle for their rights through greater persistence.

Though all the results of the survey have not been processed, and the entire project of studying personnel turnover will last all of 3 years, even these figures sufficiently indicate the direction the social effort should take and why it is obviously necessary.

[Box] 318 Respondents

In a survey financed by the Slovenian Republic Research Community and the Slovenian Economic Chamber the respondents were 318 students of the Maribor Junior Postsecondary Economics School and the Ljubljana Management School. All the respondents are employed full time and decided to go to school mainly because they wanted to change jobs and frequently their workplace. It is particularly interesting that 21 percent of the respondents already hold supervisory jobs, which offers additional information for understanding the degree of relevance of the figures in the table to the answers to questions about possibility of promotion, the frequency of conflicts between supervisors, the ratios between personal incomes and opinions on the

extent to which a higher personal income would tend to improve the quality of work.

All of 42 percent of the respondents have been employed for more than 5 years, 66 percent work in production proper, and 45 percent are members of the League of Communists. About 85 percent are under age 35, at the height of their strength and have a strong desire to make better use of the knowledge they have acquired in their job or in school. About 42 percent of the respondents have graduated from a secondary technical school, 25 percent a school for worker occupations, and only 3 percent an academic high school. Less than half have already changed their workplace once, 24 percent have done so twice, 18 percent have moved to another collective three times, and the same proportion have done it four times. In short, respondents were chosen who have spent their work life up to this point just like the majority of other employees, and chronic "migratory birds" or people who are never satisfied were avoided. Nevertheless, the principal characteristic of this group of respondents is still the datum that in undertaking to study the economic and legal sciences they wanted to leave production departments and to go to jobs outside production proper or--among supervisory personnel.

It is not out of place to mention that nearly every respondent is employed in a different work organization, so that to some extent this survey also offers a cross section of opinions which apply (under certain conditions) to all of Slovenia. We have given only some of the figures from the survey, which in all covered 50 questions, and the negligible number of questionnaires not altogether filled out indicates that the topic aroused great interest among the respondents.

At the same time we want to thank Dr Janez Jerovsek, the Slovenian Economic Chamber and the Slovenian Republic Research Community for having made the material available and for having allowed us to use their questionnaire, which we will be using this fall in a similar survey in Croatia.

The Questions That Were Asked and the Answers That Were Given

Do you feel that the job you perform is sufficiently esteemed and respected in your collective?

a) My work is highly esteemed	3
b) My work is given satisfactory credit	58
c) My work is not particularly esteemed	35
d) My work is not esteemed at all	4

Do you think of changing your workplace?

a) Yes, very often	23
b) Yes, sometimes	45
c) Very rarely	23
d) Never	9

What sort of opportunities are there for promotion in your work organization?

- | | |
|--|----|
| a) Satisfactory or even very good | 32 |
| b) Little opportunity for promotion | 50 |
| c) No opportunities for promotion at all | 14 |
| d) I am not interested in promotion | 4 |

What in your opinion is the principal condition for promotion in your workplace?

- | | |
|--|----|
| a) Education and work performance | 57 |
| b) Connections, who you know, and the like | 43 |

Would it be hard for you to go off to another workplace?

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----|
| a) Yes, that would be hard on me | 62 |
| b) It makes no difference | 18 |
| c) I would gladly go | 20 |

What sort of influence do you have on decisionmaking and other events in the work organization?

- | | |
|---------------|----|
| a) Very great | 1 |
| b) Great | 8 |
| c) Moderate | 40 |
| d) Small | 29 |
| e) Very small | 20 |
| f) Don't know | 2 |

Occasional tension or conflicts are one of the general and lasting phenomena in all workplaces. How often do they occur in your collective and who are the principals?

- | | Very
Often | Often | Rarely | Very
Rarely |
|---|---------------|-------|--------|----------------|
| a) Between supervisors | 8 | 32 | 42 | 18 |
| b) Between supervisors and workers | 13 | 38 | 39 | 10 |
| c) Between subordinates and superiors in
the work unit | 12 | 39 | 36 | 13 |
| d) Among the workers themselves | 4 | 16 | 40 | 40 |

How in your opinion are disputes, conflicts, tensions and other conflict situations usually resolved?

- | | |
|---|----|
| a) By avoiding or concealing the conflict | 21 |
| b) By reconciling opposed interests (compromise) | 45 |
| c) By honoring only one opinion so that one party "wins" and the
other is "defeated" | 34 |

If you feel that workers with higher education would rather take supervisory positions than to go into production proper, why in your opinion is this the case?

- | | |
|---|----|
| a) Personal incomes are considerably higher in supervisory jobs than in production proper | 41 |
| b) The work in a supervisory position is more interesting | 8 |
| c) The work in a supervisory job brings greater social status and more power | 44 |
| d) For other reasons | 3 |
| e) Don't know | 4 |

Are the ratios between personal incomes for performance of supervisory work duties and work duties in production justified?

- | | |
|---|----|
| a) The ratio between the personal incomes of the workers and supervisors is too large | 74 |
| b) This ratio is fully justified | 23 |
| c) The personal incomes of supervisors are too low in proportional terms | 3 |

We will enumerate several frequently encountered opinions pertaining to remuneration. Do you agree with them?

- | | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> | <u>Don't Know</u> |
|--|------------|-----------|-------------------|
| a) A majority of the persons employed in the collective are remunerated precisely according to the results of their own work. If they work more, they will earn more | 65 | 29 | 6 |
| b) The employees would have an incentive to work better if ratios were fairer between personal incomes, but only if they were increased | 74 | 13 | 13 |
| c) The range is too small between the lowest and highest personal incomes | 21 | 65 | 14 |
| d) If the personal incomes of supervisory personnel were increased, they would work more | 2 | 82 | 16 |
| e) If the personal incomes of unskilled workers, semi-skilled workers and skilled workers were increased, they would work more | 52 | 33 | 15 |

How much of work time do you spend actually working?

- | | |
|----------------------|----|
| a) 40 to 60 percent | 11 |
| b) 60 to 80 percent | 52 |
| c) 80 to 90 percent | 27 |
| d) 90 to 100 percent | 10 |

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SITUATION OF CHURCHES, RELATIONS WITH STATE REVIEWED

Emphasis on Good Relations

Belgrade NEDELJNE INFORMATIVNE NOVINE in Serbo-Croatian No 1549, 7 Sep 80
pp 16-19

[Article by Milan Milosevic: "The Churches in Yugoslavia"]

[Text] It is perhaps a paradox of the eighties that the church has begun to take on a political role once again in some places. The adaptation of the Catholic Church to the working class movement today, for example, is quite reminiscent of the papal bulls in 1848 when the socialists were equated with Satan. In Latin America the church is playing an important and frequently progressive role; we have before us the Islamic Revolution in Iran, which has been spectacular for a long time, and in the events in Poland the church has been very much a presence. As if it is coming down to earth more and more frequently and assuming the risk of politics.

Perhaps it is no wonder that foreign analysts of conditions in our country have been concerned with the church--at times even in calculations concerning a "possible destabilization." There has been writing about Stepinac, about the "influence of the religious imam Khomeini...."

All those familiar with this problem we have talked to judge that these calculations are groundless--problems between the church and state are today on a lower rung than they were.

It is a fact, however, that in our public politics there has been talk recently about the "subversive activity of certain clerical circles." Hamdija Pozderac warned some 10 months ago that there had been attempts "to take over the sponsorship and 'concern' for the stability of the nationality through religion and by equating it with the identity of the nationality." Last November Stane Dolanc reacted with the following sentence to what had been written in the newspaper DRUZINA: "We will never allow religious freedom in our society to be abused in order to exert pressure on religious people and on their commitment as self-managers."

There have also been reactions of a different kind: Franc Setinc announced this June that "we cannot allow a conflict to be waged in the news media between views of the world that would willy-nilly result in a political division into atheists and believers." Branko Mikulic reproached narrow-minded and doctrinaire members of the League of Communists who have been criticizing their comrades for not adopting atheistic rights when they bury their religious parents with the words: "Who does that serve, and why?"

What all these statements indicate is not a crisis, but on the contrary an endeavor to protect the present atmosphere in this domain, which by and large is favorable, against possible exaggerations and abuses.

When we decided to publish this little sketch of religions in Yugoslavia, we were guided by precisely that motive--even the most superficial glimpse of this complicated mosaic indicates that mutual tolerance is a condition in this society for the coexistence of such great differences.

The Religious Pattern

What does Yugoslavia's present "religious pattern" look like? Atheization and secularization are characteristic of many advanced societies, yet we are witnesses of ebbs and floods of religion in the world. What actually is the situation in our country?

Dr Esad Djimic, a sociologist who studies religion and to whom we talked about the drama of atheization a few days ago, says that we can observe the inertia of consciousness today as in a kind of retort.

The government does not interfere with religion, and it is so consistent in this that it even does not ask people what faith they belong to. The last time such a question was put was in the 1953 census, and at that time 41.4 percent were orthodox, 31.8 percent Catholic, 12.3 percent Moslem and 12.5 percent nonbelievers. Subsequent sociological research has shown that the number of believers is dropping. For instance, in Slovenia in 1975 a survey showed that about 60 percent of the population there is religious, and the rest atheist. Esad Djimic says that the empirical data should be taken with caution; 30 years is too short a time for the changes to be evident.

The Social Sciences Institute in Belgrade, however, ascertained in a survey of social strata in Serbia conducted sometime in 1974 and published in 1978 that all of 88 percent were not religious, 5 percent were religious, and 7 percent belonged in the mixed category. This is the lowest religious representation recorded in any survey in our country, and even if we take it with a certain reserve--the tendency toward atheization is clearly outlined.

It is obvious that religion is being displaced more by the spirit of the times than by the efforts of atheists. Here is a little detail that can tell you that truth: The conference of bishops of the Catholic Church,

It was reported in POVIJESTI KATOLICKE CRKVE, once included "combating nudism on coastal beaches" among its undertakings along with topics having to do with the church and charity.

Something paradoxical has occurred. Since 1945 we have been witnesses of an obvious atheization of society on the one hand, while on the other religious activity has been developing without hindrance. Before the war, for example, only six religions were allowed. In Yugoslavia today there are 35 different religious communities, and some specialists say even 40.

The Drama of Atheization

Radovan Samardzic, who has an M.A. in theology and is secretary of the Commission for Relations With Religious Communities of the Federal Executive Council, a man who aside from his official position is also concerned with this problem area as a scientist, is attempting to reconstruct a kind of geography of religions in Yugoslavia. The layman has no idea of the kind of interlacing that is involved. Some areas are completely atheistic, in some paganism predominates, and there are places where there are as many as 10 different churches.

This drama of atheization is not a simple one: baptism, marriage and burial--we would have to be deaf not to see those subtle dramas concealed behind family walls. Sons with what Huxley would call their atheistic "behaving as though death were an unverified rumor" and elderly parents who in their old age make more remarks than they did to their sons about the deceptive paradise which death could open up. It would seem that the family social environment passes on religious views along with its behavior patterns and customs.

Yet we still should not forget what are called institutional channels. In Yugoslavia there are about 20,000 professional religious officers doing "the work of the Lord" in about 20,000 churches, monasteries, mosques and church homes. The impressiveness of this mosaic pattern of churches is indicative of society's openness, but also of all the possible material and spiritual influences which struck down roots here.

The religious communities are not hampered in disseminating their doctrine. According to data of the Catholic Church and the Islamic community, which are the only ones who keep records on this, half a million children receive Catholic religious instruction in a thousand lecture rooms, and there are about 100,000 students in a slightly smaller number of Islamic religious schools.

The State and the Church

Religious communities in Yugoslavia carry on elaborate information activities. GLAS KONCILA is a semimonthly with a circulation of about 100,000. PRAVOSLAVJE has a circulation of 30,000, and the herald of the Islamic community PROPOBED has a circulation of about 30,000.

What is the relationship between the government and these religious communities? Dr Aleksandar Fira, chairman of the Commission for Relations With Religious Communities of the Federal Executive Council, says that they are conducted in conformity with the constitution, and we regulated the relationship between the government and religious communities on the same principles in the 1946 constitution and in the present constitution. This in itself is indication that the achievement of the revolution has effectively withstood the test of time. A system in which the church is separate from the state and the school is an achievement of progressive bourgeois thought taken up by our socialist revolution and consistently implemented.

What is the present situation?

Dr Fira says that relations between the government and the religious communities are good, which has been reiterated several times, "but," Fira says, "our assessments also point up the fact that in certain religious communities there are abuses of religion for political purposes. We encounter even attempts to merge religion with nationalism, which are very dangerous for our society. One might also note cases of narrow-mindedness and doctrinaire positions on the part of public officeholders concerning demands which religious communities make on the basis of law to exercise their rights. The greatest problems, for example, are with sites for building religious structures. But that is a part of the general situation. Even in general terms we have a disorderly situation in urban planning, and the religious communities are, of course, suffering their part of that fate."

According to the assessments of Moma Radosavljevic and Ljubisa Stokic, whom we talked to in the Socialist Alliance of Working People of Yugoslavia, a great deal of attention has to be paid in this sensitive area so as to avoid sectarianism on the one hand and on the other to avert clericalism. In sectarianism is probably meant a dogmatic and adverse attitude toward the demands of the church and toward the right of a man who believes in God to be involved in politics as a citizen.

By clericalism is probably meant the attempt of church circles to continue to play a political role. Asked to comment on this phenomenon, Dr Aleksandar Fira said that "no demands have been articulated on the part of the religious communities to impose themselves as political partners, though a more subtle political analysis would confirm an endeavor of this kind on the part of individuals in religious communities."

To what extent is the behavior of religious institutions affected by current international events? Dr Fira's answer is this: "It cannot be said that there is no such influence." He did tell NIN, however, that "official church representatives of the most numerous religious communities are consistently giving assurance that they harbor no tendencies toward any kind of international linkup that would not be in accordance with their constitution, status or with their organization, though there have been individual cases that indicate that such influences are spreading. The government

does not stand in the way of the international contacts of religious communities," Dr Fira says, "but they must be brought into conformity with our fundamental principles of foreign policy, which is an obligation of every citizen foreseen by the constitution."

The churches in Yugoslavia are financially independent aside from the aid of the government, they are supported by the offerings of their congregations, and they perform religious services. To what extent does the fact that money sometimes comes from abroad as well determine their role?

"The churches," Dr Fira says, "are not prohibited from receiving aid. We do not keep a record of this in government agencies. I know of cases in which religious communities in this country have been receiving that kind of aid, but I would not be able to say to what extent that aid determines their behavior."

One person we talked to, one who is knowledgeable in this field, judges that "today the church has more problems with itself than with the government."

A "Lower Order" Problem

It is obvious that these haggles over construction of particular churches do not leave deep traces, just as deep traces are not left by this kind of tale: one clergyman, an official in his professional association, which, unlike the church, is affiliated with the Socialist Alliance, says to an official in the SAWP with whom he must maintain a working relationship: "Better for us to meet in my office, you know my 'hierarchy won't like it if I'm constantly paying visits to the government.'"

It is obvious that today the problems are of a "lower order" than yesterday. The same can be said of institutions.

As for relations between religious people and atheists, here again certain dilemmas have been resolved, certain prejudices overcome, and on the whole the dialog is more tolerant.

This is obviously our formula. Nevertheless, it seems as though the effort not to injure religious sentiments and the domain of religion have been unnecessarily wrapped in a veil of silence. In preparing ourselves for life, in school, for example, we hardly get even the most basic concepts. Yet a more subtle analysis of doctrines and myths of the churches which are active in our country might help to break down certain prejudices.

At a time when there is so much information about religion coming in from elsewhere in the world, perhaps we are not as good readers of the world in which we live for the lack of a deeper knowledge of these "subtle matters of the soul."

Church Holdings

Belgrade NEDELJNE INFORMATIVNE NOVINE in Serbo-Croatian, No 1549, 7 Sep 80
pp 16-17

[Text] The confusing mosaic of faiths, places of worship and theological views, differences which do not originate merely with the schism in 1054:

The Catholic Church, according to statistics from a few years back, has about 2,700 parishes, 182 monasteries and 415 convents. In the language of numbers, this represents about 3,100 diocesan priests, 1,768 monks, 8,600 nuns, 120 postulants and 280 novices in monasteries and more than 800 postulants and novices in convents.

About 760 divinity students and 560 seminarists are studying in the 2 theological schools for service in the Catholic Church. In 1969 the Catholic Church began to celebrate the mass in the language of the people.

The Serbian Orthodox Church, which is autocephalic, has 28 dioceses (21 in Yugoslavia and 7 abroad), about 2,400 parishes, about 180 convents and monasteries and about 2,200 priests, monks and nuns.

Last year there were 70 full-time students attending the theological school, and there were about 380 seminarists.

The Macedonian Orthodox Church, which proclaimed its autocephalic status in 1967, has about 225 parishes, 120 monasteries, 239 priests and some dozen monks. It has a seminary at the secondary level with 80 students.

The Islamic Community has about 1,600 religious officers in its 4 synods (in Sarajevo for Bosnia-Hercegovina, in Pristina for Serbia, in Skopje for Macedonia and in Titograd for Montenegro) and recently has built a large number of mosques.

Religious schools at the secondary level (medresas are Moslem theological schools at the secondary and junior postsecondary level) in Sarajevo and Pristina have about 500 students, and in Sarajevo there is also the Moslem School of Theology.

The Evangelical Church (established in Germany in 1817 and taking the Gospels as the basis of its faith, conducts its service in the language of the people, and is characterized by decentralization of the church organization) has 18 churches in Croatia, Bosnia-Hercegovina and Vojvodina, 13 church districts, 5 affiliates, 12 ministers and 23 lay ministers.

The Evangelical Christian Church of the Augsburg Confession, with headquarters in Murska Sobota, has 16 churches, 15 ministers and 20 lay ministers, and the Slovak Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession (the Augsburg Confession is the first official foundation of Protestantism), with its

headquarters in Novi Sad, has 27 districts. Its ministers are trained in Bratislava and Erlangen, Germany.

The Christian Reformed Church--Calvanist, with headquarters in Pacir, which is in Backa, has 43 ministers in 43 church districts and 9 affiliates, about 60 churches and seminaries in Baranja, Slavonia, Medjumurje and Vojvodina. In the Calvinist churches there is no altar, icon or statues (it condemns idolatry). This movement came into our country through Hungary. It perhaps is worth recalling that this religious movement dates from the 16th century in the vicinity of Geneva and spread from there into France (the Huguenots) and England (the Puritans).

The Baptists in Yugoslavia have 54 church districts and about 20 ministers and lay ministers. The Baptist and Evangelical churches have established a divinity school in Zagreb. The Baptists are a Protestant religious sect established in England in 1633, they are advocates of baptism of adults, since they teach that only a man who has a thoroughly conscious attitude toward faith can participate in the right of baptism.

The Methodist Church has about 40 ministers; the bishop's seat is in Skopje, and the headquarters of the secretariat in Novi Sad. The Methodists are a sect of the Anglican Church, and the latter, if we resort to the aid of an encyclopedia, came into being in 1534 in England when Henry VIII broke with Pope Clement VII. Some will remember the film on this subject.

The Christian Adventist Church has in its 4 regions (Zagreb, Novi Sad, Nis and Sarajevo), which comprise the union, which has its seat in Belgrade, has 300 local churches with more than 120 professional ministers. They have a junior postsecondary and secondary school attended by about 150 young men and women, and there is also a bible correspondence school. This is a religious sect which celebrates the Sabbath on Saturday; this sect believes "in the second coming of Christ and the Day of Judgment."

The Christian Community of Jehovah's Witnesses has 104 districts governed by appointed representatives (servants). The Christian Pentecost Church has 72 church districts and about 70 ministers making up synods or regions of Serbia, Slavonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Hercegovina, and Macedonia. There is also a Romanian synod in Banat and one Hungarian one in Subotica which are officially called Christ's Spiritual Church.

The Jewish Community has 36 Jewish communes, and each of them has a religious section among others. There are no professional religious officers, but the rabbi's functions are performed by individual laymen. Their liturgy consists of prayers and readings of various canonical books.

An alliance of Old Catholic churches was established in 1954 (11 parishes, 10 priests and 7 churches) which was joined by the Old Catholic churches of Croatia, Serbia, Slovenia and Bosnia-Hercegovina.

There are also many smaller churches active in Yugoslavia: for example, the Romanian Orthodox Church (Vrsac), Christ's Church of Brethren (Backi Petrovac), the Christian Nazarene Community (Novi Sad). It is characteristic of the Nazarenes that they reject the church hierarchy, the clergy and church services, they refuse to take oaths and to serve in the army. They are also referred to as New Believers.

The very list of churches in and of itself indicates the traces left in this region by various material and spiritual influences. This interwoven pattern is most obvious in the north of our country: the Spiritual Church of Christ of Those Whose Feet Are Washed (Vrdnik), the Spiritual Church of Christ of the Partially Immersed (Subotica), the Spiritual Church of Christ of the Evangelical Brethren (Belgrade), the Jesus Christ God's Church of Saints (Zagreb), the Reform Movement of Seventh Day Adventists (Belgrade), the Esoterian University Religious Community (Zagreb), the Seventh Day Church of God (Novi Sad), the Church of God (Vinkovci), the Church of Last Judgment (Osijek), the Free Catholic Church (Zagreb), the Mormons (Zadar), and so on.

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